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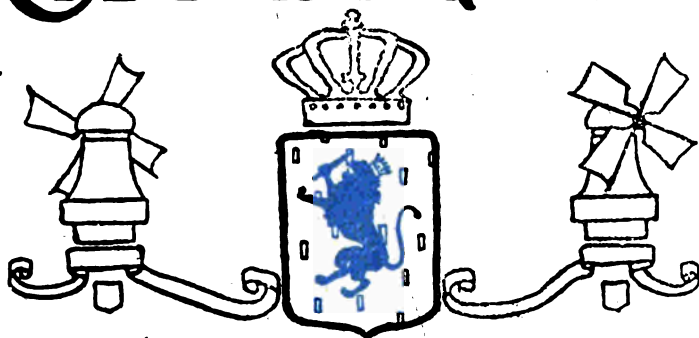
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THE CHAUTAUQUAN



**Friendship of Nations -- I.
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The German Kaiser

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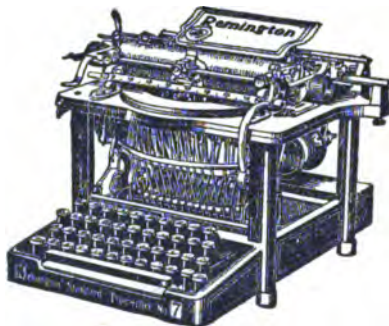
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"The Little Princess," by Moreelse. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

(See "Dutch Art and Artists.")

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 52

SEPTEMBER, 1908.

No. 1.



IN one respect the present presidential campaign is unique and unprecedented. There is to be full publicity as regards campaign contributions, though the law does not require it. Congress failed to enact a bill providing for the publication of lists of contributors and amounts by national campaign committees, and the Republican convention rejected a publicity plank that was proposed by the Wisconsin delegation. However, Mr. Taft has been an advocate of publicity and has directed that the New York state law be followed by the Republican committee, whose headquarters are in that state, regardless of any question of its technical applicability to the case. The treasurer of the committee, Mr. Sheldon, has announced that, in accordance with that law, an account will be published after the November election.

On the other hand, Mr. Bryan and his managers have announced and put in effect a system of publicity "before" the election. Only late contributions will be accounted for after that event: all others will be made known to the people at the time of their receipt by the campaign treasurer and his aids.

These developments mark a great step forward in our politics. For years all upright citizens have deplored the elements of waste, extravagance, secrecy and corruption, or fear and suspicion of corruption, in our campaigns. In local contests the practice of "gentlemen's agreements" between

managers has come into vogue, the object of such agreements being to lessen expense and prevent abuse and corruption. In national politics, apparently, a new departure has been made. Elections will be regarded more and more as public affairs, and they will be determined by arguments and appeals to fact and reason, and not by noise and spectacular demonstrations. Expenses will be regulated and restricted, and public accounting will limit them to absolutely legitimate and proper methods of influencing voters—printing of documents, hiring of halls, correspondence, etc. The first step has been taken, and others will follow.

As to contributions from corporations, not many seemed to be aware at the outset of the campaign that a law already existed prohibiting and severely penalizing such contributions. Only individuals are now legally able to contribute to national campaigns; corporations are forbidden to do so. Scandalous misuse of stockholders' money, the bribing of two or more sets of campaign managers "impartially" and at the same time, and like evils caused a demand for the act in question, and it was passed early in 1907. To some politicians this act proved a revelation, but it will help to make the campaign clean and legitimate.



The Issues and the Personalities

As the presidential campaign progresses it is more and more widely realized that each of the great parties has put its best foot forward this year. Candid Democratic observers are admitting that Mr. Taft is a strong candidate who is displaying much ability and tact in meeting the problems of the contest. Independent and fair Republican newspapers are admitting that in Mr. Bryan the Democrats have the natural and logical candidate for the presidency. Neither party started out with a mistake; neither underestimates the qualities of the other's presidential ticket.

Mr. Bryan secured his nomination in spite of opposition from politicians and machines, and without the aid of money or patronage. Those who bitterly attacked him in former

years are bitterly attacking him now; to them he is still the dangerous radical, the demagogue, the maker of phrases. They would have brought about his defeat in the convention had not an overwhelming majority of the Democratic voters demanded his selection as standard-bearer, and had not the other candidates in the party declined and faded into a mere shadowy existence. Mr. Bryan leads the Democrats once more because his ideas and proposals are popular—as popular as are those of the President with the great majority of the Republicans. Mr. Taft is the Republican candidate because he is pledged to continue the reform policies of the present administration; Mr. Bryan is the Democratic leader because he is identified with an advanced and radical program. In each party the progressive wing is “on top,” and the conservatives who are demanding “a rest,” the cessation of agitation for reform, have had to subside and submit.

The Democratic platform is more radical than the Republican. It was intended to be so, and Mr. Bryan and his co-workers in the campaign are hoping on that account to attract and win over Republican radicals and ardent Rooseveltians. The issue as it is shaping itself is framed by many as follows: Granting the need of further political, economic and social reform, of continued warfare against evils and abuses, which candidate is the more likely to prove the consistent and bold champion of the cause of progress and reform?

A study of the two platforms shows that on many subjects the parties are in accord. Several planks in each are different from the corresponding ones in the other in mere phraseology or in minor details. This is true of the planks dealing with the navy, civil service, liberal pensions, conservation of natural resources, prevention of land frauds, improvement of water ways, etc. On the questions of the tariff, trust control, railroad regulation, labor, the currency, the Philippines, bank deposits and taxation, not to name minor topics, the Denver platform may be said to join issue

with that of the Republicans. The Democrats incorporated some planks which a Republican minority, following the President, insisted on but failed to secure at Chicago. They declared for direct popular election of federal senators, a physical valuation of railroads with a view to scientific rate regulation, full publicity for campaign contributions. They declared for the extermination, instead of the control, of private monopoly, for placing all trust-manipulated goods on the free list, for reducing tariff duties to a revenue basis as rapidly as possible, for emergency notes issued by the government rather than by the banks, for an income tax, for an immediate announcement of intention to give the Filipinos independence, for the guaranteeing of private deposits in the national banks under a system similar to that now in force in Oklahoma, for a strong law fixing upon employers liability for accidents to their employes, for an eight-hour day on government work, and for limitations upon the issuance of injunctions after such a manner that no court could issue an injunction in an industrial dispute if no injunction were possible in a similar case affecting other interests than those of labor and capital.

On all issues except Philippine independence and "colonial" imperialism the differences in the respective planks are thus differences of degree. The Democrats are more radical than the Republicans but less radical than they were four and eight years ago, while the Republicans are more radical than before, though not as radical as the militant reformers wished the party to be.

The prospects are for a quieter and more reasonable campaign, for less denunciation and more argument; for "less heat and more light." Many editors and citizens are pleading for a rational campaign, one free from abuse, personalities, invective, in the interests of political honesty as well as in those of commerce and reviving prosperity. Men of affairs feel that in spite of politics business should steadily improve, since the issues of the campaign are neither new nor dangerous, and since the success of neither candidate

would spell a break with present policies and sudden departures.

There will be more harmony in the Democratic party than in the previous three elections, but in the East the Bryan ticket still has few newspaper supporters. Independents are leaning toward Mr. Taft but critical and vigorous in their comments on the situation. Both sets of leaders and managers admit that hard work is ahead of them and that there will be a lively and determined fight, especially in the West, which is to be the battle ground this year. All save one or two of the so-called doubtful states are in the West.



The Famous "Oil Case" Reversed

The reversal by the federal Circuit Court at Chicago of the decision of Judge Landis in the notable case of the United States vs. the Standard Oil Company of Indiana, one of the constituents of the Standard Oil trust, has legal as well as political aspects. The appellate tribunal severely criticised Judge Landis, alleging the he abused his discretion in imposing the stupendous \$29,000,000 fine; that he arbitrarily computed the alleged offences of the defendant, making the number of cars in which oil was transported at unlawful rates the number of offenses punishable each by the maximum fine; and that he misinterpreted the law in holding that shippers must investigate rates instead of accepting those quoted by carriers and make sure that they are fair and lawful. It strongly intimated that Judge Landis had himself disregarded the law in seeking to punish the larger corporation, that was not before him as a party, for the sins of the smaller corporation, the legal defendant. In turn the appellate court is severely arraigned in many newspapers and by lawyers and laymen for alleged injustice to Judge Landis, for misquoting his words and misstating his position. The whole issue of "criticism of the courts" has

Here, as in the platform of the bigger parties, the spirit and tendencies of the time are strikingly illustrated and expressed. The positions taken on social, economic, and political questions are decidedly advanced.

The Prohibitionists do not claim that they will elect their ticket, but they do assert that the stress of tendency is with them and that success is almost within their grasp in the sense that prohibition will soon embrace the whole country.

In 1904 the Prohibition presidential vote was 258,536, and in 1900 it was 208,914; not in all the states, however, were there separate Prohibition tickets of presidential electors. This year the total vote is expected to be much heavier. But the growth and influence of the movement will not, in any event, be gauged by the vote. The indirect forces and factors working for prohibition will not be represented in it.



Progress in National Education

That Americans "have a passion for education," elementary, secondary and high has become a familiar saying the world over. Nowhere is education more liberally or lavishly endowed, and nowhere do the people tax themselves more cheerfully to provide free and sufficient education to all children, as well as to adult aliens who desire to acquire the rudiments of English and of other fundamental studies. For the latter there are night schools, special classes and settlement classes. For the children of the poor there are vacation schools where pleasure and recreation are combined with practical and manual instruction. As to the higher nontechnical education some statistics were recently published by Dr. Elmer E. Brown, federal commissioner of education, that have been widely commented upon. It appears that 622 institutions of higher learning are available in the country. Of these, seventeen universities and colleges have 1,000 or more male undergraduates each, four

have over 900 men students each, and 114 have 200 or more such undergraduates.

In the establishment of elementary and high schools the progress is steady and rapid, and the same is true of the professional schools. Yet there are very serious and vital problems before American educators. They have to do, not with quantity but with quality. New conditions create new needs; ideas are changing; neglected aspects of education are challenging attention. Is there proper adaptation of education to life in general and to industrial life in particular? Do the schools discharge their function efficiently? Do they omit things that should be included and unduly emphasize other things? Have they the right ideals and the right methods?

At the recent annual convention of the American Education Association these questions were vigorously discussed and certain defects in our system of public education were pointed out. The resolutions that were adopted are comprehensive and give one a fair idea of the whole situation. They note progress, recognize ripening and unsettled questions, and indicate needed reforms in several directions. We reproduce the more important parts of the resolutions because they largely carry their own moral:

Fully realizing that trained and skilled labor is a primary essential to the industrial and commercial welfare of the country, we cordially indorse the establishment by municipal boards of education of trade schools, industrial schools and evening continuation schools.

We recommend the subordination of highly diversified and overburdened courses of study in the grades to a thorough drill in essential subjects; ill considered experiments and indiscriminate methodizing should be abandoned.

We assert that the individuality of the pupil should be carefully considered, to the end that he may be instructed in the light of his limitations and capacity.

We earnestly recommend to boards of education, principals and teachers the continuous training of pupils in morals and in business and professional ethics, to the end that the coming generation of men of affairs may have a well developed abhorrence of unfair dealing and discrimination.

The bureau of education at Washington should be preserved in its integrity and the dignity of its position maintained and increased. It should receive at the hands of Congress such recognition

tionality and the culture of the old world, to understand that much that is foreign is good, noble and worth preserving, and that contempt for parents, even if they are ignorant and different, is not American. She also urges teachers to visit foreign homes, acquire some knowledge of the conditions and environment of the children put in their charge, and counteract everything that makes for the undesirable side of a too rapid assimilation—lack of reverence, vulgarity, insolence, imitation of the worst instead of the best.

These appeals and ideas have been strongly indorsed in the thoughtful newspapers, and they certainly point to a vital problem.



The Douma, Tolstoy, and the Russian Situation

Count Tolstoy, in a vigorous and impassioned philippic, recently denounced the policy of the Stolypin cabinet as "government by execution." Farcical trials, death sentences by the score, hanging of men, women, and minors, encouragement of black-hundred violence and disorder, bureaucratic tyranny and resistance to all reform, chronic famine and starvation for millions—these are the things, Tolstoy said, that are called law and order in Russia. He for one must repudiate and condemn them before the whole civilized world.

Many less uncompromising reformers than Tolstoy, the apostle of Christian Anarchism and passive resistance to state and organized church, are very pessimistic regarding the situation and prospects in Russia. The third douma, it is true, has not been dissolved; after a long and busy session the Tzar prorogued it until fall while expressing in private audience to its president hearty appreciation of its spirit, policy and course. It is generally expected that the present douma will complete its legal term of five years and accomplish something for Russian constitutionalism and progress. Its mere existence, of course, is a great benefit, for it insures discussion and criticism of official abuses and

certain reforms in administration and finance. It must be acknowledged, too, that on several occasions the majority of the third douma, though moderate and only mildly liberal, ventured boldly to attack the irresponsible control of army and naval affairs by the grand dukes, the inefficient and obstructive staff of the admiralty, and the provincial military despots. It also rejected the demand of the government for an appropriation for four new war ships—on the ground that the service had not been reformed and that the ships would serve no useful purpose at this time. Still, the fact remains that the douma neglected the vital and burning questions of Russia—agrarian reform, justice, freedom of speech and press, etc. The budget occupied most of its time, and it voted for heavy “defence” expenditures in the Pacific territories, for a new domestic loan to cover the deficit for the year, for an “all Russian” Amur railroad to Vladivostok, in addition to the road that traverses Manchuria, which is to be improved and largely reconstructed, and for other governmental measures. The government has no particular reason to be dissatisfied with its record to date, though it is gradually developing courage and confidence.

The Russian constitutionalists find some comfort, however, in the reflection that the reaction has been checked, that even the fanatical monarchists no longer hope to destroy the douma as an institution, and that certain small reforms are being conceded by the government. Progress will be very slow, and much injustice, suffering and cruelty will have to be endured, but the tendency, at any rate, is upward and forward. Not everything has been lost, and the Revolution will yet bear fruit.



Reaction of Persia, and European Responsibility

The Shah of Persia has tried a *coup d'état* and succeeded. He has dismissed the national assembly, and destroyed the buildings in which it was housed. For a time

civil war was threatened all over the country, but the troops of the Shah, led by a Russian general, were so completely victorious at Teheran, the capital, that the provinces lost heart and submitted. In the capital the war between the constitutionalists and the reactionaries was savage and merciless, and tales of cruelty and torture, of wholesale executions and bombardments of private houses owned by liberal leaders and members of the assembly, have shocked the western world.

The causes of the counter-revolution are not clearly understood. It is known, however, that the Shah, though he has repeatedly sworn to uphold and respect the present constitution, which is less than a year old and which includes concessions to the throne, has never fully sympathized with the constitutional movement or cause and has on various occasions overstepped the limits of his power. There had been frequent collisions between him and his ministers, on the one hand, and the national assembly on the other. That assembly is by no means democratic, but it represents the mercantile elements, the priests, the educated citizens who have traveled abroad and a part of the aristocracy. The example of Russia has been before its eyes, and it has aimed at reform in many directions. When the final rupture came few good observers were surprised. Many at once concluded that the end of the whole parliamentary or constitutional experiment had come in Persia, which, they said, was not really ripe for any form of representative government and could not be other than a typical Oriental despotism.

Certainly the Shah's proclamation and explanation to his people and to the world indicated an absurd conception of constitutionalism. They were full of bitter complaints against "irresponsible" societies and clubs that "meddle" in governmental affairs, and against disturbers and agitators who had plotted against the throne and impudently demanded reform of a radical character. These private societies had to be suppressed with a firm hand, for government must remain

in the hands of trained and competent persons, the Shah continued. Unfortunately, he admitted, the national assembly supported them and was willing to use and be used by them; hence the war of extermination had to be extended to the assembly itself. These are strange notions, even for Persia, and they throw little light on the situation.

However, the Shah has ordered another election of members of the national assembly and has promised to respect the essentials of the constitution. He has decided to establish an upper chamber, which he has no right to do under the constitution, but after the *coup d'etat* this is a minor usurpation.

It is believed that England and Russia have prevented the Shah from overthrowing the new regime entirely. Their treaty, regulating their respective interests and spheres in Persia, renders coöperation between them a possible policy; if the treaty and understanding had not been reached the Persian internal disorders might have led to intervention, friction and war between England and Russia. But it is also said that the understanding has hampered England in Persia and injured the cause of liberty and constitutionalism. Possibly the Shah and the reactionary cliques have relied on Russian support and have felt themselves safe from English displeasure and resentment. Thus Europe may be responsible for evil and reaction in Persia, and a diplomatic victory for peace in Europe may entail a defeat for liberalism in the Orient. This, however, is to a certain extent speculative. It is still hoped that the counter-revolution in Persia may not be complete and crushing.



I. The Present European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World

By Victor S. Yarros

SUCH phrases as "the balance of power," the "concert of Europe," the "European Equilibrium" and the like have become thoroughly familiar even to the casual reader of the political news published in the daily and weekly press. The same casual reader knows that the powers of the world form various alliances, understandings, combinations among themselves for various purposes, either aggressive or defensive. Today, it is generally supposed and understood, the peace of the world rests upon and is secured by a number of such alliances and understandings. Any change in the present grouping of, or relations between, the great powers has a bearing on or constitutes a phase of what is called "world-politics," and may conceivably disturb the equilibrium.

Yet things constantly happen in the political and diplomatic spheres of activity, and every year, not to say every month, brings its crop of incidents, developments, events, and crises. There is no stability in international relations, for many problems are still unsolved in Europe, Asia, America, and there are, unfortunately, many grounds for suspicion, jealousy, friction, and discord between the leading powers. The great German empire builder and diplomat, Bismarck, says in his "Reflections and Reminiscences:"

"International policy is a fluid element which, under certain conditions, will solidify, but, on change of atmos-



King Edward of England, who has done much to Promote good
Feeling between European Powers.



Victor Emanuel III., King of Italy.



Kaiser Wilhelm II., the War Lord of Germany.



Chancellor von Buelow of Germany, one of the greatest Diplomats
in Europe.



Emperor Franz Joseph of Austro-Hungary.



Sir Edward Grey, who aided in concluding Anglo-Russian Treaty.

phere, reverts to its original condition."

The important fact to be recognized is that nations even more than individuals and corporations, are governed by their fundamental needs and interests. Dynastic ties, personal and family friendships, individual temperaments are not wholly without influence on international policy, but their influence is limited and transitory. In the long run, geographical, historical, physical, commercial, organic conditions determine the foreign policy of a nation—its ambitions, aspirations, efforts and measures. Hence, when any real need or vital interest dictates a revision or even a reversal of policy, all opposition of a sentimental nature vanishes as if by magic.



M. Delcassé, formerly French Foreign Minister.

A glance at the "world-situation" at this juncture reveals certain cardinal features. We have a condition of fairly stable equilibrium. All the great powers are professing an anxious desire to maintain peace. All are earnestly disclaiming aggressive designs. All are favoring straightforwardness, candor, and "sweet reasonableness" in international relations. Whether the Emperor of Germany visits England, or the King of Great Britain and Ireland visits France, or a meeting is arranged between the Tzar and his Teutonic or Austro-Hungarian fellow-sovereign, the message, formal or informal, which the world receives as the result of the affair is a message of peace and cordiality. Yet Europe has well been described as an armed camp. Military and naval expenditures are steadily mounting; the suggestion of even partial disarmament, or limitation of budgets for so-called defence, has remained a vague aspiration, a dream.

An able writer, Mr. J. Holland Rose, closes a book on "The Development of the European Nations, 1870-1900," with these depressing sentences:



The Tzar of Russia, a Leader in the Movement for International Peace.

"What was true of the middle of the eighteenth century is trebly true of the dawn of the twentieth century. Viewing the matter broadly, we must admit that the present state of armed truce combines many of the worst evils of war and of an emasculating torpor. It is neither a state of rest which builds up the fabric of humanity, nor a time of heroic endeavor such as sometimes mitigates the evils of war. The individual is crushed by a sense of helplessness as he gazes at the armed millions on all sides of

him. . . . From these weltering masses, engaged in piling up work upon work against some remote contingency, there arises and will still more arise a dull, confused, questioning murmur, whether the whips of fear which drive them on are not wielded by some malignant fury masquerading in the garb of peace—whether the whole gigantic effort is not a hideous nightmare, a game with men's lives doomed to end in stalemate."

This is a good description of the sort of "balance" which Europe is boasting of today; and yet it is a fact of tremendous significance that since the war of 1870 Germany "has not fired a shot in anger" (to use the expression of a brilliant journalist) and that since the Russo-Turkish conflict of 1877 Europe has not been the scene of any hostilities. Provocations and opportunities have not been lacking, but the peace has been kept, friendly relations have been strengthened, and safeguards multiplied.

Among these safeguards are the alliances and understandings which exist today in Europe. Some of them are recent and full of vitality; others, it is held by competent students, are mere survivals, whose significance, once great, has been impaired by the march of events. Still, so long as they remain in effect, they are factors that must be reckoned with.

In brief, it may be said that the European balance is supported by the following combinations, named in chronological order:

The Triple Alliance, the parties to which are Germany, Austro-Hungary, and Italy.

The Dual Alliance of Russia and France.

The Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

The Anglo-French "entente cordiale" (cordial understanding).

The Algeciras Treaty in regard to Morocco.

The Anglo-Russian understanding.

There are also in effect various partial and limited agreements and special treaties between France and Italy, France and Spain, Russia and Japan, Russia and Austria, Japan and China, and most, if not all of these, have an indirect bearing on the situation in Europe, even where they ostensibly and in terms have reference to interests in Asia or Africa. Space will not permit a consideration of these minor agreements and arrangements, and our attention must be directed to the above mentioned major factors.

To understand fully the existing alliances and groupings of the leading powers, it would be necessary to know much more than actually is known concerning the secret history of European diplomacy. In diplomacy language is still used quite as much to conceal as to express thought and there are, besides, many points in the origin, evolution, and real purposes of the alliances and understandings that have not been cleared up. In general, however, it is undoubtedly true that the present European situation and "balance" must be traced to the momentous Franco-Prussian war of 1870, the found-

ing of the German Empire as a direct consequence of the issue of that war, and the dangers which Italy, Russia, and England saw in those developments, as well as in their respective internal conditions.

The Triple Alliance was originally a dual alliance between Germany and Austro-Hungary. And that dual alliance at first had reference only to defensive operations in the event of an attack on either of the parties by Russia. It was negotiated by Bismarck in 1879, who explained it, according to his secretary, Busch, as follows: When we (Germany and Austria) are united with 2,000,000 soldiers back to back, the Russians with their nihilism will doubtless think twice before disturbing the peace." The terms of this treaty were not officially published until 1888, and in substance, they provided for these contingencies: If either of the allies should be attacked by Russia, the other must come to its aid with all its forces. If the attack should be made by any other power, the ally must merely observe perfect neutrality.

Italy joined the alliance in 1882, as a result of her dissatisfaction with the seizure of Tunis by France in the previous year. Italy herself had had her eyes on Tunis, and its annexation by the French, with the tacit consent of Germany, proved to be the cause of a long and unnatural estrangement between the two Latin nations. The terms of the treaty whereby the Triple Alliance was formed have never been authoritatively given to the world, but the general understanding is that the three powers reciprocally guaranteed the possession of their respective territories, agreed to resist attack on any one of them, and stipulated the amount of aid to be given by each in case of hostilities with France or Russia or both powers.

The Triple Alliance did not prevent Bismarck from concluding a secret treaty with Russia, which compact, when its existence had been revealed, led to an outcry and a denunciation of the Teutonic Chancellor for duplicity and bad faith. By that agreement, which lapsed with the fall of Bismarck, Germany and Russia bound themselves to observe

neutrality in case either of them should be attacked by a third power.

It is clear, then, that the object of these treaties was the preservation of peace and the prevention of "surprises" and aggressions. But the Triple Alliance initiated the great modern tendency toward the much-vaunted "equilibrium" of Europe. Its formation, in connection with other occurrences to be mentioned, caused France, Russia, and England great anxiety. It is even believed that in 1886 France and Russia tried to break up that combination by offering inducements to Italy to withdraw from it and seek territorial advantages at the expense of Austria.

If the policy of Russia, in the seventies of the last century was considered dangerous to the peace of Europe, so dangerous as to necessitate a powerful alliance, it is equally true that the policy of Germany under the Bismarck regime as Chancellor of the Empire, was considered full of danger to France, England, Russia, and the peace of the world generally. It is this danger which prompted France and Russia—the one a republic and the other an autocracy—to lay aside many differences, incompatibilities of temper and deep-seated suspicions and conclude a dual alliance. This latter alliance was also a somewhat gradual development.

The friendlier feelings between Russia and France at first manifested themselves in arrangements for placing Russian loans in Paris. The first of these loans was quietly negotiated in 1888. But among the decisive influences which finally brought about the complete understanding may be named what is known among diplomatic writers as "the affair of 1875."

France, by that time, had fully and marvelously recovered from the disaster of the "terrible year," 1870. She was again confident, prosperous, and strong. In the year named, she voted a large increase of her armed forces, while her politicians and newspapers were openly advocating preparations for the eventual reconquest of Alsace and Lorraine, the provinces she had lost to Germany. Her people

were not reconciled, as they are now, to what was called the dismemberment of France by the ruthless Bismarck. In order to prevent an attack or a war of revenge by France, the military party of Germany urged on the emperor to assume the offensive and by an immediate attack reduce France to impotence. Various hints, it appears, were thrown out by the Teutonic ambassadors to that effect, and great apprehension was excited. The Paris correspondent of the *London Times*, de Blowitz, was authorized, indeed asked by the French premier, to publish the facts. He did so, and produced a sensation in every European capital. The Tzar, to whom the French government dispatched a special envoy with documents, gave the latter assurance that he would interfere to prevent an unprovoked war on France. Queen Victoria and the British government also evinced genuine concern and used their good offices to end the tension and the crisis. These efforts were successful and as already stated, the "scare" served to bring Russia and France together.

Visits of the two fleets were interchanged in 1891 and finally the Tzar overcame his distrust of republicanism and the alliance was concluded. The treaty embodying the terms of this alliance has never been published but, according to Mr. Henry Norman, M. P., author of "All the Russias," it provides that "if either nation is attacked, the other will come to its assistance with the whole of its forces, and that peace shall only be concluded in concert and by agreement between the two."

Both the Triple and Dual Alliances have been renewed a number of times and are in effect today, though, owing to various developments, their real significance has changed. The relations between Italy and France are again friendly and have been so since 1901, when "an understanding" was arrived at between them in regard to mutual interests in the Mediterranean Sea and in Africa. In 1903 a treaty of arbitration was signed by them, and the Italian statesmen frankly avowed that the considerations which had led their country

to enter into partnership with Germany and Austria had lost much of their weight. On the other hand, the relations of Germany and Russia have greatly improved; during the Russo-Japanese war Emperor William displayed considerable good-will toward the St. Petersburg government, and since then visits have been exchanged and cordial greetings rather ostentatiously published. The Emperor has called the Tzar "Admiral of the Pacific" while applying to himself the title "Admiral of the Atlantic." As to England, her whole situation has been changed, thanks to King Edward's diplomacy and tact, and thanks, too, to a realization that her foreign policy for some decades had been narrow and unsafe.

Early in 1902 a second dual alliance was formed—between England and Japan. The former had boasted of her "splendid isolation," referring to the lack of connection with either group of the great European powers. But she had secretly felt that the isolation was by no means as magnificent as it could be made to appear to the unsophisticated. There were troublesome questions in the near East, in the far East, in Egypt, and in Africa (to some of which we shall refer in our second article) which needed delicate handling. The war with the Transvaal Boers had aroused extreme bitterness against England in Continental Europe, and in Germany a press campaign of singular violence had been carried on, representing Great Britain as the natural enemy of the advancing Teutonic Empire. It was, therefore, a bold stroke to enter into an alliance with a yellow, Asiatic, non-Christian power. The announcement of the Anglo-Japanese agreement was received with amazement—in some quarters with scorn and contempt. But the event, all agree, has justified it, though of late there have been some hints from high British quarters that it may not be renewed upon its expiration, owing to the threatened revival of a serious anti-European propaganda in Asia.

The text of this treaty of alliance shows that the contracting powers had in view the maintenance of the inde-

pendence and integrity of China and Korea, the preservation of the "open door" (equality of commercial rights in the Far East), and the safeguarding of peace. Each party, however, recognized the special interests of the other in China or Korea, and proceeded to pledge itself as follows:

"If either Great Britain or Japan, in defence of their respective interests, should become involved in war with another power, the other high contracting party will maintain a strict neutrality, and use its efforts to prevent other powers from joining in hostilities against its ally. If, in the above event, any other power or powers should join in hostilities against that ally, the other high contracting party will come to its assistance, and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with it."

It is this alliance which, according to general opinion, "localized" the Russo-Japanese War. But for it, France might have joined in the conflict over Manchuria and Korea, and had that happened, no one knows where the struggle would have ended.

Even the alliance with Japan, however, did not reassure the statesmen of England and there was profound satisfaction when, the wounds inflicted by the sympathy of continental Europe for the Boers having healed, it was found possible for England to come to a comprehensive understanding with France. The credit for this momentous agreement, comprising three distinct conventions and settling old and disturbing controversies, belongs to M. Delcassé, the then minister of foreign affairs in France, whose whole policy was enlightened and pacific (though Germany thought it was designated to "isolate" *her* and draw Italy, Spain, and England closer and closer to France), and to Lord Lansdowne, Britain's foreign minister under Salisbury and Balfour.

The conventions referred to dealt respectively (1) with West Africa and Newfoundland; (2) with Egypt and Morocco; and (3) with Spain, Madagascar, and the New Hebrides. Passing over the minor and perhaps too technical features of these treaties, it is sufficient to say that their chief importance lies in the recognition of French special and paramount interests in Morocco by England, and in

the reciprocal recognition by France of the status quo in Egypt. France had never before acknowledged the legitimacy of England's rule over Egypt and had, from time to time, reminded the London government of the explicit pledge of Gladstone to evacuate that country (still nominally subject to Turkey). The understanding put an end to all possible friction over the occupation and its consequences. On the other hand, England declared expressly that, as the master of Algeria and Tunis, France properly claimed the right to maintain order in Morocco and use her influence to improve the financial, administrative, and military position of that misgoverned country.

To the average man this Morocco feature of the agreement meant, simply, that so far as England is concerned, France might annex the Moorish kingdom and end the anarchical and dangerous conditions that are chronic there. This, however, was not the "correct official view," though Germany was disposed to side with the downright average man. The Emperor resented the pretensions of the French in Morocco, visited Tangiers in person, made a vigorous little speech to German residents, and asserted that he would defend their commercial interests as well as those of their fellow subjects at home. There had been no talk of injuring or discriminating against German interests in Morocco (other interests she did not claim) but the general comment on the visit and speech was that the Kaiser had intended to serve notice on England and France that he could not be ignored in any matter affecting the European balance or the disposition of territory in Africa, Asia, or elsewhere. For a time, all Europe was filled with apprehension—there was even talk of war. But all ended happily.

The Morocco question had become acute, and internal disorder tended to aggravate the difficulty. In order to relieve the situation, a conference of the powers was called at Algeciras in 1906 for the ostensible purpose of definitely settling the status of Morocco and the relation of France, Spain, and the other nations thereto. All the leading powers,

including the United States, were represented at the conference and an agreement was reached after many delays. Germany at first refused to acknowledge the peculiar and paramount interest of France in Morocco, but at last she yielded. The Algeciras Treaty provided for better policing of the ports of Morocco under French and Spanish instructors and officers, for suppression of contraband in arms, for improved customs duties and sources of revenue, and for the "open door," or economic equality, for the powers trading in the kingdom.

As a matter of fact, as will be shown in a later paper, the conference only postponed the settlement of the ultimate Moroccan question. Germany gained nothing beyond this delay, and France lost nothing, because she was not ready, in any event, to become actually the master of that kingdom; she knew that the conditions were not right for a *coup* similar to that of the occupation of Tunis. She had other questions on her hands and was willing to wait as regards Morocco. But Germany's apparent aggressiveness alarmed Europe and was resented by Italy, her ally. It led to some pointed and plain remarks about the "hollowness" of the Triple Alliance, and Emperor William himself manifested his displeasure in a characteristic utterance which Italy construed as a charge of ingratitude and disloyalty against her. On the whole, the Moroccan incident is considered to have been a blunder, especially in view of its effect on the native rulers and the more fanatical tribesmen, who have threatened a "holy war" on all Europeans and Christians.

If, however, the Algeciras Treaty must be considered insincere and illusory from a "long run" point of view, more favorable judgment is distinctly invited by the Anglo-Russian understanding and treaty, in which, notwithstanding some criticisms, most diplomatic experts see a real triumph for peace and good-will, a long step toward permanent peace. That England and Russia could come together at all and find their interests to be by no means hopelessly in con-

flict was a surprise to many. Which power made the larger concessions is an open and not very important question. But there is ground for hope that the provisional agreement will be in due time replaced by a permanent one.

The Anglo-Russian Convention, negotiated by Sir Edward Grey and M. Isvalski, the foreign ministers of the two "contracting parties," was signed in the fall of last year. It embraces three sets of questions—those relating to Persia, those relating to Afghanistan, and those relating to Tibet. In substance, the treaty gives England a "sphere of influence" and financial control in the south, and Russia a similar sphere in the north of Persia, a debt-ridden country that is nominally independent and supposed to be passing from an autocratic to a constitutional regime. As to Tibet, both parties agreed to respect China's suzerain rights over it and pledged themselves not to seek concessions and franchises in that mysterious land. Afghanistan, Russia declared to be outside her sphere and influence, and agreed to deal with it through British officials.

British India "breathed freely" again after the ratification of this treaty, for the "invasion of India" menace had been removed. The liberal-minded elements of both countries welcomed the treaty as a splendid achievement.

But it would be rash to assert that any one of the existing alliances or all of them can be regarded as an absolute pledge of peace. There are possibilities of friction and conflict in many directions. The really effective guaranties of amity and concord are moral and industrial. The occasional regrouping of the powers is to be expected; "understandings" will come and go; but education, national interest, the demand for great social reforms, the difficulty of financing needless wars,—these are a constantly increasing influence.

In another article we shall glance at the international problems that are still unsolved and that from time to time give rise to "incidents" and diplomatic excitement—problems whose solutions may involve momentous readjustment, political and territorial.

favor of his son, Philip II., a gloomy monarch of fanatical tendencies, assassinator of William, Prince of Orange; the strongest maintainer of the Inquisition with its tens of thousands of slaughtered victims and the deliberate midnight murderer of his own son, Don Carlos. Holland's darkest hour was at hand. Motley vividly portrays the hell let loose upon the kingdom. With the assistance of his servile minister, Granville, the Inquisition did its work. The King retired to Spain but quartered his Spanish troops throughout the States, to the impoverishment and despair of the people. The King's sister, Margaret of Parma, was installed in the Netherlands as regent. At this distressful period, three champions of liberty, namely, William, Prince of Orange, Count Egmont, a brilliant general, and Count Horn, urged the King to redress the people's wrongs. They claimed (1) the withdrawal of the troops, (2) the removal of the inquisition, (3) the restoration of the people's right through the states' general to vote the sums of money demanded by the King. The King now retired both Margaret of Parma and Granville in favor of the Duke of Alva and the garrisons were doubled by an army sent from Spain to suppress the insurrection and root out the heretics. With callous brutality, Alva invited Egmont and Horn to a banquet; though urged by William of Orange to beware of treachery, they went, were seized by Alva's soldiers, and notwithstanding their rank and services to Philip, were executed. By beheading, hanging, burning, and torturing on the rack, the Duke of Alva put to death some one thousand persons while many thousands were driven out of the country. The insurrection then became a war of independence, under the leadership of William of Orange. Eventually, the Dutch Protestants were successful, and several of the provinces, renouncing their allegiance to Spain, proclaimed the Prince of Orange, Stadtholder, and by a treaty at Utrecht (1579) laid the foundation of the Dutch republic.

William the Silent, who is said to have earned the

"soubriquet" because he controlled himself and made no comment when Henry II., had arranged a general massacre of Protestants throughout France and the Netherlands, saved by his prudence at any rate for a time, the threatened disaster. He was Charles V.'s favorite ambassador. He was born 1533 and died in 1584. Although a staunch Catholic and supporter of the King, William repeatedly protested to him against Alva's atrocities but without the slightest effect. The Council of Blood was now established, and incredible as it is now to believe, sentence of death was passed upon the whole of the inhabitants of the Netherlands. (February 16, 1568.) Philip confirmed the edict, and ordered its immediate execution. Thus Alva's victims could be executed without even the formality of a mock trial. (See Motley.) William of Orange now took active steps to oppose Alva, but too utterly cowed to assist, the Dutch populace remained passive while the Prince spent his own fortune on foreign troops. Despite the valor of his brothers Louis and John, defeats followed. The beggars of the sea, a body of nobles banded together to resist Alva, met with some success. Prince William's own States, Zeeland and Holland, on land alone, showed determination to resist. The massacre of St. Bartholomew only stimulated the desires of Philip and Alva. Cities whose inhabitants defied the Spaniards were besieged. Surrender on promise of mercy nearly always resulted in the inhabitants being put to the sword, as at Naarden and Haarlem. (See Motley.) The siege of Leiden, however, brought a sudden check to the Spaniards, for when the city was at its last gasp, William, from his fever stricken couch, ordered the cutting of the dykes, whereby the country was flooded. His fleet of war ships being in readiness, he sailed up to the very walls of the city. Through years of toil and privation Prince William held to his trust, the freeing of his country. Affectionately called Father William, he matched his intellect against the cleverest men of his age, and with his enthusiasm kept alive the waning spark of

national patriotism. His is a solitary and splendid figure. When in 1581 the Holland States finally renounced their allegiance to Spain, Prince William was elected Stadtholder, after he had emphatically refused any higher title. On July 10, 1584, an obscure hireling of Philip II., tempted by the large reward offered by the King, gained access and secreted himself near the principal stairway of Prince William's house. Armed with a pistol, he fired several poisoned bullets at the Prince, two of which took effect.* Thus passed the spirit of this great man, his last words as he fell being a prayer, "God save this unhappy country." The murderer was promptly executed, his flesh being torn from his body by hot pincers, but his parents, on claiming the blood money from Philip II., were at once exalted and granted patents of nobility. William's son, Maurice, was then elected Stadtholder, and ruled until 1625 amid a period of increasing prosperity. The republic grew and flourished in spite of the theological disputes which were rife, and in consequence of which the pensionary, John Van Oldenbarneveld, was put to death by Maurice. The war with Spain was vigorously carried on. The Dutch admirals, De Ruyter and Tromp, added immensely to the power and reputation of Holland. With commercial prosperity, the population rapidly increased; both on land and sea the Dutch defeated their former masters. The merchant fleets navigated the world and founded the Dutch colonies. On the death of Maurice, his brother, Frederick Henry (1645-1647), succeeded as Stadtholder and the prosperity of the country reached its zenith. The commerce of Holland was renowned the world over and the Dutch navigators, painters, and scientists, were in their full glory. By the peace of Westphalia, the great work of William the Silent was completed. Europe acknowledged the independence of the provinces and William II., son of Frederick, came to the throne, surviving his father by only a few years. In consequence of dissensions breaking out, John De Witt was

*See Library Shelf in this magazine.

elected Grand Pensionary. In 1652, the first naval war with England was declared, in consequence of the navigation act passed by the English parliament which was intended to promote the navigation of Britain and to strike a blow at the naval power of the Dutch. Admirals Tromp and De Ruyter came to the fore and the English fleet suffered more than one heavy reverse. At the outbreak of the second war in 1664, De Ruyter succeeded in sailing up the river Thames as far as Chatham. Louis XIV. of France, cast covetous eyes on the Netherlands, alleging a right to them on behalf of his Spanish wife, Maria Theresa, but he was checkmated by the triple alliance, formed by John De Witt between England, Holland's quondam enemy, and Sweden and Holland to resist that very attack. De Witt, however, fell a victim to the vengeance of the people who accused him of harboring designs against the Stadtholder, William III, who was now at the head of the provinces. In 1672, England went to war with Holland again, and in the same year the triple alliance having been dissolved, Louis of France took possession of certain of the Dutch provinces, and De Witt, with his brother, was killed by the infuriated Dutch mob at the Hague. The young Prince of Orange then became Stadtholder, and in 1688 was crowned William III, King of England. His cousin, Prince John William of Friesland, was elected President of the Republic and waged war with England against France. The war lasted for about eight years, terminating in the treaty of Utrecht, 1713. John's son, William IV., followed as Stadtholder and again war with England for naval supremacy ensued. In 1781, Holland lost most of her colonies and the French Republic took possession of Holland in 1795. The brother of Napoleon, Louis Bonaparte, was made king in 1805, and five years later Bonaparte formally annexed Holland under the pretext that it was an alluvion of French rivers. Mention should be made of the memorable feat of the French general, Pichegru, in capturing the frozen up Dutch fleet by bringing his cavalry over the ice. The flight of the

Stadtholder, William V., to England brought into existence the Batavian Republic, which with R. J. Schimmelpennick as President acquired a brief notoriety. Louis Bonaparte, as King of Holland, occupied the throne for five years, during which time Napoleon's "Continental System," recoiling upon his own head, brought commercial ruin to Holland. Louis resigned the crown in 1810 and Napoleon incorporated Holland with France. After his crushing defeat at Leipzig, the Dutch, with the help of Russia and Prussia, the allies, and England, swept the French over the border, and peace dawned again over the distressful country after Napoleon's overthrow at Waterloo. The famous Lion Monument on the battlefield is erected over the spot where the Prince of Orange was wounded while leading his Nassau regiment to the charge.

The restoration of the House of Orange resulted in the acceptance of the crown (1813) by William, the son of the exiled Stadtholder, and in 1815, by the Vienna treaty, Belgium was added to the kingdom, and the Prince of Orange, under the title of William I. was crowned king of the Netherlands. Dissensions, the result of incompatibility, soon followed between the Dutch and the Belgians, the latter complaining of the assumption of supremacy by the Dutch and furthermore objecting to the compulsory use of Dutch language, replacing Flemish and the official French. Holland, being Protestant and loyally attached to the House of Orange, while Belgium too long subjugated to Spain and France, being anti-Orange and Roman Catholic, separation resulted. In 1830, the European powers, fearing further complications, prevailed upon Holland to accept the severance. After ten years of unrest, the King abdicated and William II. ruled over Holland with the Duchy of Luxemburg added under the Vienna treaty, from 1840 to 1849, when he was succeeded by William III. Princess Emma of Waldeck and Pyrmont (sister of the Duchess of Albany) and consort of William III, acted as regent at her husband's death and during the minority of her daughter, Wil-



The Emperor Charlemagne.



Philip the Good.



Maximilian I.



Martin Harpertzoon Tromp
(1597-1653), famous Dutch
Admiral.



The Emperor Charles V.



Count of Hoorne (1520-1568).



Count Egmont (1522-1568).



R. J. Schimmelpennick, onetime
President of the Batavian Re-
public.



The Late Prince Henry of Hol-
land.



Philip II. of Spain.



The Duke of Alba (Fernando Alvarez de Toledo, 1508-1582).



William of Orange, known as William "The Silent."



The Brothers DeWitt.



"Negotiations with Spain during the Twelve Years' Truce." (1609-1621). Allegorical and Satirical Painting (1614) by A. P. Van de Venne, in the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam. (The Catholics and Protestants are competing in the Work of saving Souls.)



The Trial of John V. Oldenbarneveld. Satirical Painting by Cornelius Saftleven, in the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam. (The Jury and Judge Represented as Animals.)



National Monument at The Hague, Commemorating the Dutch Independence Achieved in 1813.



Queen Wilhelmina, the present Ruler of Holland.



Interior of Church, Delfshaven, where the Pilgrim Fathers held their last prayer meeting before sailing.

helmina. Her regency is held in affectionate remembrance by the people of Holland. Wilhelmina was born on August 31, 1880, and was crowned in 1898 amid the rejoicings of the entire nation. As Queen she received the homage due to her exalted rank but it is as Princess of Orange and in her lace cap as a Frieslander, descendant of that race of patriots who dedicated their fortunes and themselves to the salvation of Holland that she reigns in the hearts of her devoted subjects. In 1901 her Majesty was married to Henry, Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, on whom she was permitted to confer the title of Prince Henry of the Netherlands. One should note the fact that it was because of her exalted rank she was forced by the laws to propose marriage to the Duke. It has been both urged and denied that it was a love match but as a matter of fact, as far as one may judge, the attitude of the Hollander towards the consort is one of tolerance.

These historical details are really necessary to the proper understanding of the papers which follow as showing the origin of these remarkable people, and the great influence which they have wielded over civilization. Indeed it would surprise some readers to learn that the best of the laws of both Great Britain and America are derived from the Netherlands, and that the two great elements (see "The Puritan in Holland and America," by Douglas Campbell) which have contributed to make America what it is, are: one, the civilization of ancient Rome, with its genius for government and its instinct for justice and equal rights; the other, the strong wild blood of the Germanic race with its passion for individual freedom, which has given its nerve, strength, and energy to modern Europe. The first of these elements was utterly extinguished in England by the Anglo-Saxon conquest, while the feudal system, afterwards came in to rob the Germanic conquerors of many of their early ideas regarding civil liberty. One country alone, Holland, was largely free from this devastation and this blight. There the civilization of Rome was never extinguished, and the

feudal system took but feeble root. The people preserved more purely than any others their Germanic ideas and institutions but engrafted on them the arts, the learning, and the laws derived from communication with civilized and civilizing Italy. To the patriot, to the lover of civil and religious liberty, as well to the student of art and science in any land, the history of this Republic and country, must always have a peculiar charm. But, apart from its general features, this history is so interwoven with that of England and America that anyone concerned with the past of either of these countries will find it a subject of unfailing interest. When modern Englishmen set out to write the history of their country, they cross the channel and describe the Angles and the Saxons in their early home upon the continent. That home was so near to the Netherlands that the people of Holland and the conquerors of Britain spoke substantially the same language, and were almost of one blood. To the Englishman, thinking only of the greatness of his own land, this original relationship may seem sufficient honor for a tiny fragment of the earth's surface not as large as Switzerland, but it is only the first chapter of the story. For hundreds of years in later times, and until long after the settlement of America, the Netherlands stood as the guide and instructor of England in almost everything which has made her materially great. When the Reformation came, in which northwestern Europe was new born, it was the Netherlands which led the van, and for eighty years waged the war which disenthralled the souls of men. Out of that conflict, shared by thousands of heroic Englishmen, but in which England as a nation hardly had a place, Puritanism was evolved—the Puritanism which gave its triumph to the Netherland Republic, and has shaped the character of the English-speaking race.

In time, England came to hate the benefactor to whom she owed so much; thus after the Restoration of the Stuarts, and still more after the Tory reaction which followed the Revolution of 1688, the political writers about the court

habitually ridiculed the Dutchmen for virtues which they could not understand (see Roger's "Story of Holland").

The Republican Hollander deemed the attentions of king or noble to his wife or daughter a disgrace. The courtiers about Charles II viewed this subject differently and regarded the Dutchman as ill-mannered for his want of taste. Added to this was the Hollander's respect for the private rights of all classes; his devotion to art and learning; his love of fair dealing in personal and in public matters; his industry, frugality; and, finally, his universal toleration. No one could deny the Dutchman's courage, for they were among the boldest soldiers and sailors that the world has ever seen; but they were not gentlemen from the aristocratic point of view. Sir William Temple, one of the most elegant and accomplished gentlemen, at the court of Charles II, being sent as ambassador to the Hague, related some of his experiences, among others the following, which illustrates the authority of woman in Holland. Dining one day with the chief burgomaster of Amsterdam and having a severe cold, he noticed that every time he spat on the floor while at table a tight handsome wench who stood in a corner holding a cloth, got down on her knees and wiped it up. Seeing this, he turned to his host and apologized for the trouble which he gave, receiving the jocular response, "It is well for you that my wife is not at home, for she would have turned you out of the house for soiling her floor, although you are the English ambassador." ("The Puritan in Holland, England and America," by Douglas Campbell.)

For art, for science, and deep scholarship, no other country could be compared with Holland in her palmy days. But Holland owed preëminence in these departments, not to an aristocracy, nor even to a monied class whose inherited wealth led them to abstain from business. The men who sustained her painters and musicians, who fostered science and broad learning, were the plain burghers, merchants, and manufacturers in the cities, men whom Queen Elizabeth called "base mechanics," who worked themselves,

nificently endowed hospitals, but we should not forget that in all this great and noble work, republican Holland set us the example three centuries ago.

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I. Frans Hals and the Portrait.

By George Breed Zug

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WHEN compared with Italian painting and its numerous artists of the fourteenth, and even thirteenth century, Dutch painting seems distinctly modern. For it is not until the seventeenth century that we find a real, genuine Dutch art in the history of painting. Artists of Dutch birth had existed in the two preceding centuries, but they were, to judge from their few remaining works, not different from the artists of neighboring Flanders. All, Dutch and Flemish alike, seem to have been painting religious subjects,—the Roman Catholic church has always been a liberal patron of artists,—in a miniature-like way, with very small strokes of the brush and a thin layer of paint, with great timidity in drawing the human body, and with an overabundance of details. But all of this changes rapidly after the Peace of Utrecht in 1579 with its religious and political freedom for the seven Northern Provinces. And now that Holland, a free and Protestant nation, was born, there could and did arise at once a national, a Dutch art wholly distinct from Flemish art. The Flemings are temperamentally inclined toward the French in sprightliness, and in imaginativeness, the Dutch, phlegmatic and serious, are more like the Germans. The Flemings remained Roman Catholic and continued to paint large altar pieces with a wealth of color and movement and invention. The Dutch, in whose churches such productions dared no longer find a place, derived their delight from the artistic treatment of themselves and their

daily life. And as a result no country has produced such a body of paintings showing in an intimate way the very life of its people at work and at play. Even the religious picture, so far as it remained became domesticated, became a part of the house furnishings. This seventeenth century Dutch school of painting is, after that of Italy, the greatest of history. For more than a generation before Frans Hals there were scores of distinguished artists working successfully in the various cities of Holland. Some historians of art history treat the subject of Dutch painting by cities. There seems, however, a special advantage in discussing the paintings of this period by subjects treating the portrait as represented by Hals and his contemporaries, then the painters of domestic scenes, of landscapes, and of animals. This plan will be followed in this series of articles.

A portrait painter of today is inclined to assert that portrait painting is the most difficult of the arts. Whereas each branch of art is difficult for the conscientious artist, let us see what are the special problems of the portraitist. Of course the artist's aim is always to create something beautiful, therefore a painter of madonnas and saints, as well as the painter of domestic scenes and of animals, must so select and arrange his materials that the result will be a harmonious and beautiful unity. The great Italians brought this unity about chiefly by line and pattern, the Dutch painters chiefly by light and by shade. A portrait then should not only represent the outline of the person's features, but the head, the body, the arms, and the legs should be so arranged within the limits of the frame that beauty results.

The earlier portraitists in Italy and in the Low Countries made their problem as simple as possible. At first they introduced only the head and shoulders. Later they added the hands as an aid in the interpretation of character. Whole generations later they turned the head or the body to give variety, and, lastly they introduced accessories which threw, as it were, a sidelight on the character of the sitter by suggesting his occupation. The merchant, pen in hand, sits



Statue of Frans Hals (1584-1666), in Haarlem.

before his ledger; the tailor with his shears is about to cut the cloth spread out on his table; the money lender has his scales and his money bags beside him.

Paul Moreelse, the painter of the beautiful little princess of our frontispiece, is taken as representative of the host of distinguished portraitists who came just before Hals. Moreelse was born in Utrecht in 1571; he was a pupil of Mierevelt of Delft, but after his apprenticeship he returned to his native city where he was busily occupied the rest of his life. His princess is typical of the precise workmanship of the best masters of the period. A word may here be said as to the way in which these masters look at their subjects. When about to paint a portrait they select and arrange their material as all artists must, but they seem to let their eyes wander from head to foot of the sitter in order to then reproduce each detail with utmost precision. What could be better than the careful rendering of the lace collar and cuffs, and the gold chain of the princess? For that kind of painting nothing could be more skilful. It was in this sort of painting that that greater master of Germany, Hans Holbein, expressed his way of seeing nature. But this multiplication of detail is as primitive a way of representing a person as the careful drawing of ten thousand leaves is a primitive way of representing foliage. For ten thousand leaves do not necessarily make a tree. These early painters painted not according to appearances but according to knowledge. Moreelse by careful observation was able to see all these details of costume one at a time and to reproduce them all together. When we look at a person, however, we are not conscious of all the buttons on a dress or all the links in a chain; we look at the face, and such details of costume are all but lost in the corner of the eye.

Frans Hals was perhaps the first painter who painted not according to the way he knew that the sitter looked, but in the way he appeared to the eye and to the mind. Better than anyone before him he treated his portraits in a large way. He left out small distracting details and focussed



"The Laughing Cavalier." By Frans Hals. In the Wallace Collection, London.



"Nurse and Child." By Frans Hals. In the Berlin Museum.
Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.



"The Gypsy Girl." By Frans Hals. In the Louvre.
Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.



"Portrait of a Man." By Frans Hals. In the Collection of Mr.
Charles L. Hutchinson, Chicago.



"The Serenade." By Judith Leyster. In the Six Collection, Amsterdam.



"St. Joris Shooting Company," 1627. By Frans Hals. In the Town Hall, Haarlem.



"Officers of St. Adriaen's Shooting Guild." 1633. By Frans Hals. In the Town Hall, Haarlem.



"The Drinker." By Judith Leyster. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

attention on the face and the pose of his subject. This new, "broad" manner of seeing was, then, carried further by Rembrandt and the great Spanish painter, Velasquez. But Hals deserves the credit of first discovering and applying it to portraiture. Hals is often called the first of the moderns, for many of the leading artists of today paint in this "broad" manner. Hals' way of painting differs also from that of his predecessors. They put on the paint with such delicate care that the surface is smooth and somewhat lacking in expression. You cannot see the brush strokes of Morelse or of Holbein. Hals, on the other hand, puts the paint on the canvas in broad and lengthy strokes which looked at near at hand seem confusing, but which are effective at a distance. It is in just this mastery of the brush that Hals has never had a superior. As Mr. Kenyon Cox* suggests it is not merely the length and breadth of Hals' brush strokes which is remarkable, it is his skill and precision in making them of just such size and shape, of just such color and tone that when you stand away from his canvas you get the very impression of nature, the texture of lace or of satin, of skin or of hair, and this with a lifelikeness which is unexcelled.

This lifelikeness is important in a portrait. How many figures in pictures which we see seem posed and stiff, and without life. But the people in the pictures by Hals seem to be caught in the act of living. They are animated, breathing beings. There is a vitality about the people who look out of his paintings. Another point to be observed in portraits is the composition,—how much of the figure is placed upon the canvas and how well it occupies its place. It is also to be noticed whether the artist has succeeded in producing a personality with an individual character, and whether he has made eyes, mouth, hands, dress and accessories interpret the character of his subject.

Frans Hals was born of Dutch parents in Antwerp about 1580. He probably received only an elementary education

*Essay on Hals in "Old Masters and New."

in that city, for early in his life his parents removed to Haarlem where the boy Frans was placed in the art academy of Van Mander. Mr. Davies in his book on Hals, hazards some clever guesses as to the early training of our master, but the fact is that we know nothing certainly of the beginnings of his career. There is next to nothing to be learned either from manuscripts or pictures until the year 1616, the date of his first important picture, the banquet of the Saint Joris (Saint George) Shooting Guild. This painting proclaims its author to be a past master of the art of painting. We cannot, therefore, trace the beginning of his style in early works which resemble those of his master, as we can do, for instance, with Raphael and his master Perugino. But from 1616 until 1664, the date of his latest pictures, Hals seems to have been busily occupied in his profession, and at times an officer in certain associations. These two facts offer a sufficient refutation of the charge that Hals was an habitual drunkard, a mere sot. Surely two things which were necessary to the production of his works were clearness of vision and sureness of hand, and these could not be retained by an habitual drunkard. Hals may not always have lived wisely for he spent his last days in poverty, receiving a pittance from the city, and died in 1664. But although his poverty may have been in part of his own causing, it was not entirely so; for his art was too good for his time; masterly as it was it seems not to have been popular from the year 1645 onward.

The portrait of the officer, commonly called "The Laughing Cavalier," which is here reproduced, was apparently painted about 1624 when the master was at the height of his success. The careful painting of the lace ruff, the precision in the rendering of the details of the clothing, together with the lack of atmospheric effect show that the picture is comparatively early in the artist's career, and before he attained the broad manner of seeing and of rendering which mark his later art. Though the color is not strong, the embroidery being in low-toned orange-yellow

on a blue-grey cloth, it leaves a memory of brighter color. This no doubt is partly due to the want of atmosphere. These remarks are not intended to lessen the enjoyment of the beauty of the work, but only to place it in the master's career, for what could be better as an interpretation! How abounding in life is this healthy young officer, how expressive is his pose, and how bewitching his smile!

Another painting which shows his skill in catching the passing mood of his subject is the "Nurse and Child." The proud look of the peasant nurse, the transparent shadows on her face, and the skilful placing of her figure behind that of her charge are all as happy in their way as the pleased expression of the child, and the delicate painting of her cap, collar, and stomacher. The loving care displayed in the painting of this lace and of the golden olive brocade of the child's dress is again characteristic of Hals' early period.

Slightly broader in treatment but of about the same period is the painting of "The Gipsy Girl." Here the artist transfers to canvas not the suggestion of a smile, but the smile itself,—one is almost tempted to say the laugh. With this gay mood, the white linen, the salmon of the bodice, and the rosy tints of the face are in perfect accord. This delightful picture is one of the best of a whole group for which Hals is famous; pictures which might be called portrait studies or fancy portraits, in which he interprets the gay spirits of laughing girls, of fish-wives, of jesters, and of tipplers. Such paintings border closely on genre paintings (paintings of domestic scenes), and yet they remain portraits. They seem also to be sympathetic subjects to the rollicking, happy-go-lucky temperament of the jovial Hals.

But Hals does not confine himself to the painting of mere externals and the interpretation of passing moods. Though it must be acknowledged that he does not sound the depths of character in the profound manner of Rembrandt, still he has left some portraits of men and of women in serious-mood, portraits which seem to reflect the better and deeper side of his subject's character. Some of these

ing portrait of external impression by means of an equally dashing technique, Hals remains unexcelled.

A story is told of a visit paid to Hals by Van Dyck. The latter was then twenty-two, Hals nineteen years his senior. As a pleasantry Van Dyck suppressed his name, announcing himself as a wealthy stranger who wished to sit for his portrait, but who had only a couple of hours to spare. Hals fell to with his usual impetuosity, and completed a portrait for the sitter's inspection in even less than the limited time, much to the satisfaction of the latter, who expressed an astonishment not altogether feigned at the speed of its execution. "Surely," said he, "painting is an easier thing than I thought. Suppose we change places and see what I can do." The exchange was made. Hals instantly detected that the person before him was no stranger to the brush. He speculated in vain as to who he might be. But when the second portrait was finished in still less time than in the first, the mystery was solved. Rushing to his guest, he clasped him in a fraternal embrace. "The man who can do that," he cried, "must be either Van Dyck or the devil!"—(From Timothy Cole's "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters.")

Of all his followers the one who came nearest to him in method and in spirit was a woman who has been called the most gifted woman painter of the whole Dutch school,—Judith Leyster. She has been recently recalled from oblivion by the researches of Hofstede de Groot. No documentary evidence of her ever having been Hals' pupil has yet been discovered, yet until 1893 her works were bought and sold as those of Hals. Her signature, a combination of the letter J and a star,—Leyster meaning lode-star, had been mistaken for Hals' cypher. She is known to have lived from about 1600-1660 at Haarlem and at Amsterdam. In the former city she was admitted to membership in the Guild of Saint Luke in 1633, and in 1638 she married the artist Jan Miense Molenaer. Her earliest known work is "The Drinker," dated 1629. It seems no great wonder that it

was long mistaken for a Hals, so much in his spirit was the young man transferred to the canvas, but the colors are brighter and not blended as fully as with Hals. "The Drinker," who smiles happily out at the beholder, is clad in a grey coat with red corded seams, and a black hat from which hangs a long red plume. A picture very similar to this one of the Rijks Museum in Amsterdam is now in the Kaiser Friedrich Museum at Berlin, but it is not so big in feeling nor in treatment. In "The Serenade" of the Six Gallery at Amsterdam the color scheme is still brighter and the use of light and shade is more pronounced. The doublet is black and green with white slashes, the trunk-hose red and black, and the mantle grey. Although akin to Hals in certain of his moods she developed a style of her own, so that she was not only twice celebrated in the rhyming chronicles of Haarlem in the first half of the seventeenth century, but a critic of today has said of her that she is "one of the few women who have done a man's work."

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In the Metropolitan Museum New York, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, and Art Institute, Chicago, may be seen original examples of the work of Hals.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

It is essential in the study of art to use illustrations. The prints published by The Bureau of University Travel, Trinity Place, Boston, afford a cheap method of illustration. There are 170 small prints of Dutch paintings. Price 80 cents per hundred. No text accompanies these prints.

The monthly publication entitled *Masters in Art* is also recommended. Each number contains ten plates with comments by well known critics and bibliography. The following Dutch painters have been treated: Rembrandt, Frans Hals, Ter Borch, Pieter de Hooch, Paul Potter, Gerard Dou, Vermeer of Delft, Jan Steen, Metsu, Ruysdael. Price 20 cents each. Address Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y.

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS UPON THE REQUIRED READINGS
WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS
MAGAZINE.

(End of October Required Reading, pages 18-84.)



Assassination of William the Silent

[The following excerpts, taken from Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic," afford a graphic picture of the murder of William the Silent, Prince of Orange, in 1584. Balthazar, the murderer, had for seven years planned the murder of the Prince, prompted to his deed by large offers of reward from the Spaniards. How he accomplished his purpose is here set forth, together with a careful character study of the great man who freed Holland from the foreign yoke, William of Orange, one of the greatest patriots of history.]

It was Sunday morning and the bells were tolling for church. Upon leaving the house he [Balthazar] loitered about the courtyard, furtively examining the premises, so that a sergeant of halberdiers asked him why he was waiting there. Balthazar meekly replied that he was desirous of attending divine worship in the church opposite, but added, pointing to his shabby and travel-stained attire, that, without at least a new pair of shoes and stockings, he was unfit to join the congregation. Insignificant as ever, the small, pious, dusty stranger excited no suspicion in the mind of the good natured sergeant. He forthwith spoke of the wants of Gérard to an officer, by whom they were communicated to Orange himself, and the Prince instantly ordered a sum of money to be given him. Thus Balthazar obtained from William's charity what Parma's thrift had denied—a fund for carrying out his purpose!

Next morning, with the money thus procured he purchased a pair of pistols, or small carabines, from a soldier, chaffering long about the price because the vender could not supply a particular kind of chopped bullets or slugs which he desired. Before the sunset of the following day that soldier had stabbed himself to the heart, and died despairing, on hearing for what purpose the pistols had been bought.

On Tuesday, the 10th of July, 1584, at about half-past twelve, the Prince, with his wife on his arm, and followed by the ladies and gentlemen of his family, was going to the dining room. William the Silent was dressed upon that day, according to his usual custom, in very plain fashion. He wore a wide-leaved, loosely-shaped hat of dark felt, with a silken cord round the crown—such as had been worn by the Beggars in the early days of the revolt. A high ruff encircled his neck, from which also depended one of the Beggar's medals, with the motto, "*Fidèles au roy jusqu'à la besace*," while a loose surcoat of grey frieze cloth, over a tawny leather doublet, with wide, slashed underclothes completed his costume. Gérard presented himself at the doorway and demanded a passport. The Princess, struck with the pale and agitated countenance of the man, anxiously questioned her husband concerning the stranger. The Prince carelessly observed that "it was merely a person who came for a passport," ordering, at the same time, a secretary forthwith to prepare one. The Princess, still not relieved, observed in an undertone that "she had never seen so villainous a countenance." Orange, however, not at all impressed with the appearance of Gérard, conducted himself at table with his usual cheerfulness, conversing much with the burgomaster of Leewarden, the only guest present at the family dinner, concerning the political and religious aspects of Friesland. At two o'clock the company rose from the table. The Prince led the way, intending to pass to his private apartments above. The dining-room, which was on the ground floor, opened into a little square vestibule, which communicated, through an arched passageway, with the main entrance into the court-yard. This vestibule was also directly at the foot of the wooden staircase leading to the next floor, and was scarcely six feet in width. Upon its left side, as one approached the stairway, was an obscure arch, sunk deep in the wall and completely in the shadow of the door. Behind this arch a portal opened to the narrow lane at the side of the house. The stairs themselves were com-

pletely lighted by a large window, half way up the flight. The Prince came from the dining room, and began leisurely to ascend. He had only reached the second stair when a man emerged from the sunken arch, and, standing within a foot or two of him, discharged a pistol full at his heart. Three balls entered the body, one of which, passing quite through him, struck with violence against the wall beyond. The Prince exclaimed in French, as he felt the wound, "O my God, have mercy upon my soul! O my God, have mercy upon this poor people!"

These were the last words he ever spoke, save that when his sister, Catherine of Schwartzburg, immediately afterwards asked him if he commended his soul to Jesus Christ, he faintly answered "Yes." His master of the horse, Jacob van Maldere, had caught him in his arms as the fatal shot was fired. The Prince was then placed on the stairs for an instant, when he immediately began to swoon. He was afterward laid upon a couch in the dining room, where in a few minutes he breathed his last in the arms of his wife and sister.

The murderer succeeded in making his escape through the side door, and sped swiftly up the narrow lane. He had almost reached the ramparts, from which he intended to spring into the moat, when he stumbled over a heap of rubbish. As he rose, he was seized by several pages and halberdiers, who had pursued him from the house. He had dropped his pistols upon the spot where he had committed the crime, and upon his person were found a couple of bladders provided with a piece of pipe with which he had intended to assist himself across the moat, beyond which a horse was waiting for him. He made no effort to deny his identity, but boldly avowed himself and his deed. He was brought back to the house, where he immediately underwent a preliminary examination before the city magistrates. He was afterwards subjected to excruciating tortures; for the fury against the wretch who had destroyed the Father of the country was uncontrollable, and William the Silent was

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no longer alive to intercede,—as he had often done before—in behalf of those who had assailed his life.

The organization of Balthazar Gérard would furnish a subject of profound study, both for the physiologist and the metaphysician. Neither wholly a fanatic, nor entirely a ruffian, he combined the most dangerous elements of both characters. In his puny body the mean exterior enclosed considerable mental powers and accomplishments, a daring ambition, and a courage almost superhuman. Yet those qualities led him only to form upon the threshold of life a deliberate determination to achieve greatness by the assassin's trade. The rewards held out by the Ban, combining with his religious bigotry and his passion for distinction, fixed all his energies with patient concentration upon the one great purpose for which he seemed to have been born, and after seven years' preparation, he had at last fulfilled his design.

Upon being interrogated by the magistrate, he manifested neither despair nor contrition, but rather a quiet exultation. "Like David," he said, "he had slain Goliath of Gath." When falsely informed that his victim was not dead, he showed no credulity or disappointment. He had discharged three poisoned balls into the Prince's stomach, and he knew that death must have already ensued. He expressed regret, however, that the resistance of the halberdiers had prevented him from using his second pistol, and avowed that if he were a thousand leagues away he would return in order to do the deed again, if possible. He deliberately wrote a detailed confession of his crime, and of the motives and manner of its commission, taking care, however, not to implicate Parma in the transaction. After sustaining day after day the most horrible tortures, he subsequently related his interviews with Assonleville and with the president of the Jesuit college at Trèves, adding that he had been influenced in his work by the assurance of obtaining the rewards promised by the Ban. During the intervals of repose from the rack he conversed with ease, and even eloquence, answer-

ing all questions addressd to him with apparent sincerity. His constancy in suffering so astonished his judges that they believed him supported by witchcraft. "Ecce homo!" he exclaimed from time to time, with insane blasphemy, as he raised his blood-streaming head from the bench. In order to destroy the charm which seemed to render him insensible to pain, they sent for the shirt of a hospital patient supposed to be a sorcerer. When clothed in this garment, however, Balthazar was none the less superior to the arts of the tormentors, enduring all their inflictions, according to an eye-witness, "without once exclaiming, Ah me!" and avowing that he would repeat his enterprise, if possible, were he to die a thousand deaths in consequence. Some of those present refused to believe that he was a man at all. Others asked him how long since he had sold himself to the Devil? to which he replied, mildly, that he had no acquaintance whatever with the Devil. He thanked the judges politely for the food which he received in prison and promised to recompense them for the favor. Upon being asked how that was possible, he replied, that he would serve as their advocate in Paradise.

The sentence pronounced again the assassin was execrable—a crime against the memory of the great man whom it professed to avenge. It was decreed that the right hand of Gérard should be burned off with a red-hot iron, that his flesh should be torn from his bones with pinchers in six different places, that he should be quartered and disemboweled alive, that his heart should be torn from his bosom and flung in his face, and, that, finally, his head should be taken off. Not even this horrible crime, with its endless consequences, nor the natural frenzy of indignation which it had excited, could justify this savage decree, to rebuke which the murdered hero might almost have risen from the sleep of death. The sentence was literally executed on the 14th of July, the criminal supporting its horrors with the same astonishing fortitude. So calm were his nerves, crippled and half roasted as he was ere he mounted the scaffold, that when

one of the executioners was slightly injured in the ear by the flying from the handle of the hammer with which he was breaking the fatal pistol in pieces, as the first step in the execution—a circumstance which produced a general laugh in the crowd—a smile was observed upon Balthazar's face in sympathy with the general hilarity. His lips were seen to move up to the moment when his heart was thrown in his face—"Then," said a looker-on "he gave up the ghost."

The reward promised by Philip to the man who should murder Orange was paid to the heirs of Gérard. Parma informed his sovereign that the "poor man" had been executed, but that his father and mother were still living, to whom he recommended the payment of that "merced" which "the laudable and generous deed had so well deserved." This was accordingly done, and the excellent parents, ennobled and enriched by the crime of their son, received instead of the twenty-five thousand crowns promised in the Ban, the three seignories of Lievreumont, Hostal, and Dampmartin, in the Franche Comté, and took their place at once among the landed aristocracy. Thus the bounty of the Prince had furnished the weapon by which his life was destroyed, and his estates supplied the fund out of which the assassin's family received the price of blood. At a later day, when the unfortunate eldest son of Orange returned from Spain after twenty-seven years' absence, a changeling and a Spaniard, the restoration of those very estates was offered to him by Philip the Second, provided he would continue to pay a fixed proportion of their rents to the family of his father's murderer. The education which Philip William had received, under the King's auspices, had, however, not entirely destroyed all his human feelings, and he rejected the proposal with scorn. The estates remained with the Gérard family, and the patents of nobility which they had received were used to justify their exemption from certain taxes, until the union of Franche Comté with France,

when a French governor tore the documents in pieces and trampled them under foot.

Characteristics of the Prince of Orange

In person, Orange was above the middle height, perfectly well made and sinewy, but rather spare than stout. His eyes, hair, beard, and complexion were brown. His head was small, symmetrically-shaped, combining the alertness and compactness characteristic of the soldier, with the capacious brow furrowed prematurely with the horizontal lines of thought, denoting the statesman and the sage. His physical appearance was, therefore, in harmony with his organization which was of antique model. Of his moral qualities, the most prominent was his piety. He was more than anything else a religious man. From his trust in God, he ever derived support and consolation in the darkest hours. Implicitly relying upon Almighty wisdom and goodness, he looked danger in the face with a constant smile, and endured incessant labors and trials with a serenity which seemed more than human. While, however, his soul was full of piety, it was tolerant of error. Sincerely and deliberately himself a convert to the Reformed Church, he was ready to extend freedom of worship to Catholics on the one hand, and to Anabaptists on the other, for no man ever felt more keenly than he, that the Reformer who becomes in his turn a bigot is doubly odious.

His firmness was allied to his piety. His constancy in bearing the whole weight of a struggle as unequal as men have ever undertaken, was the theme of admiration even to his enemies. The rock in the ocean, "tranquil amid raging billows," was the favorite emblem by which his friends expressed their sense of his firmness. From the time when, as a hostage in France, he first discovered the plan of Philip to plant the Inquisition in the Netherlands, up to the last moment of his life, he never faltered in his determination to resist that iniquitous scheme. This resistance was the labor of his life. To exclude the Inquisition, to maintain

the ancient liberties of his country, was the task which he appointed to himself when a youth of three-and-twenty. Never speaking a word concerning a heavenly mission, never deluding himself or others with the usual phraseology of enthusiasts, he accomplished the task, through danger, amid toils and with sacrifices such as few men have ever been able to make on their country's altar;—for the disinterested benevolence of the man was as prominent as his fortitude. A prince of high rank and with royal revenues, he stripped himself of station, wealth, almost at times of the common necessities of life, and became, in his country's cause, nearly a beggar as well as an outlaw. Nor was he forced into his career by an accidental impulse from which there was no recovery. Retreat was ever open to him. Not only pardon but advancement was urged upon him again and again. Officially and privately, directly and circuitously, his confiscated estates, together with indefinite and boundless favors in addition, were offered to him on every great occasion. On the arrival of Don John, at the Breda negotiations, at the Cologne conferences, we have seen how calmly these offers were waved aside, as if their rejection was so simple that it hardly required many words for its signification, yet he had mortgaged his estates so deeply that his heirs hesitated at accepting their inheritance, for fear it should involve them in debt.

It is difficult to find any other characteristic deserving of grave censure, but his enemies have adopted a simpler process. They have been able to find few flaws in his nature, and therefore have denounced it in gross. It is not that his character was here and there defective, but that the eternal jewel was false. The patriotism was counterfeit; the self-abnegation and the generosity were counterfeit. He was governed only by ambition—by a desire of personal advancement. They never attempted to deny his talents, his industry, his vast sacrifices of wealth and station; but they ridiculed the idea that he could have been inspired by any but unworthy motives. God alone knows the heart of

man. He alone can unweave the tangled skein of human motives, and detect the hidden springs of human action, but as far as can be judged by a careful observation of undisputed facts, and by a diligent collation of public and private documents, it would seem that no man—not even Washington—has ever been inspired by a purer patriotism. At any rate, the charge of ambition and self-seeking can only be answered by a reference to the whole picture which these volumes have attempted to portray. The words, the deeds of the man are there. As much as possible, his inmost soul is revealed in his confidential letters, and he who looks in a right spirit will hardly fail to find what he desires.

Whether originally of a timid temperament or not, he was certainly possessed of perfect courage at last. In siege and battle—in the deadly air of pestilential cities—in the long exhaustion of mind and body which comes from unduly protracted labor and anxiety—amid the countless conspiracies of assassins—he was daily exposed to death in every shape. Within two years, five different attempts against his life had been discovered. Rank and fortune were offered to any malefactor who would compass the murder. He had already been shot through the head, and almost mortally wounded. Under such circumstances, even a brave man might have seen a pitfall at every step, a dagger in every hand, and poison in every cup. On the contrary, he was ever cheerful, and hardly took more precaution than usual. "God in his mercy," said he, with unaffected simplicity, "will maintain my innocence and my honor during my life and in future ages. As to my fortune and my life, I have dedicated both, long since, to his service. He will do therewith what pleases Him for His glory and my salvation." Thus his suspicions were not even excited by the ominous face of Gérard, when he first presented himself at the dining-room door. The Prince laughed off his wife's prophetic apprehension at the sight of his murderer, and was as cheerful as usual to the last.

He possessed, too, that which to the heathen philoso-



William the Silent.



Spot Where William the Silent Was Shot.

pher seemed the greatest good—the sound mind in the sound body. His physical frame was after death found so perfect that a long life might have been in store for him, notwithstanding all which he had endured. The desperate illness of 1574, the frightful gunshot wound inflicted by Jaureguy in 1582, had left no traces. The physicians pronounced that his body presented an aspect of perfect health. His temperament was cheerful. At table, the pleasures of which, in moderation, were his only relaxation, he was always animated and merry, and this jocoseness was partly natural, partly intentional. In the darkest hours of his country's trial, he affected a serenity which he was far from feeling, so that his apparent gaiety at momentous epochs was even censured by dullards, who could not comprehend its philosophy, nor applaud the flippancy of William the Silent.

He went through life bearing the load of a people's sorrows upon his shoulders with a smiling face. Their name was the last word upon his lips, save the simple affirmative, with which the soldier who had been battling for the right all his lifetime, commended his soul in dying "to his great captain, Christ." The people were grateful and affectionate, for they trusted the character of their "Father William," and not all the clouds which calumny could collect ever dimmed to their eyes the radiance of that lofty mind to which they were accustomed, in their darkest calamities, to look for light. As long as he lived, he was the guiding-star of a whole brave nation, and when he died the little children cried in the streets.

* * * *

His intellectual faculties were various and of the highest order. He had the exact, practical, and combining qualities which make the great commander, and his friends claim that, in military genius, he was second to no captain in Europe. This was, no doubt, an exaggeration of partial attachment, but it is certain that the Emperor Charles had an exalted opinion of his capacity for the field. His fortification of Philippeville and Charlemont, in the face of

the enemy—his passage of the Meuse in Alva's sight—his unfortunate but well-ordered campaign against that general—his sublime plan of relief, projected and successfully directed at last from his sick bed, for the besieged city of Leyden—will always remain monuments of his practical military skill.

Of the soldier's great virtues—constancy in disaster, devotion to duty, hopefulness in defeat—no man ever possessed a larger share. He arrived through a series of reverses, at a perfect victory. He planted a free commonwealth under the very battery of the Inquisition, in defiance of the most powerful empire existing. He was therefore a conqueror in the loftiest sense, for he conquered liberty and a national existence for a whole people. The contest was long, and he fell in the struggle, but the victory was to the dead hero, not to the living monarch. It is to be remembered, too, that he always wrought with inferior instruments. His troops were usually mercenaries, who were but too apt to mutiny upon the eve of battle, while he was opposed by the most formidable veterans of Europe, commanded successively by the first captains of the age. That, with no lieutenant of eminent valor or experience, save only his brother Louis, and with none at all after that chieftain's death, William of Orange should succeed in baffling the efforts of Alva, Requesens, Don John of Austria, and Alexander Farnese—men whose names are among the most brilliant in the military annals of the world—is in itself sufficient evidence of his warlike ability. At the period of his death he had reduced the number of obedient provinces to two; only Artois and Hainault acknowledging Philip, while the other fifteen were in open revolt, the greater part having solemnly forsworn their sovereign.

The supremacy of his political genius was entirely beyond question. He was the first statesman of the age. The quickness of his perception was only equaled by the caution which enabled him to mature the results of his observations. His knowledge of human nature was profound. He gov-

erned the passions and sentiments of a great nation as if they had been but the keys and chords of one vast instrument; and his hand rarely failed to evoke harmony even out of the wildest storms.

* * * *

Ghent, saved thrice by the policy, the eloquence, the self-sacrifice of Orange, fell within three months of his murder into the hands of Parma. The loss of this most important city, followed in the next year by the downfall of Antwerp, sealed the fate of the Southern Netherlands. Had the Prince lived, how different might have been the country's fate! If seven provinces could dilate, in so brief a space, into the powerful commonwealth which the Republic soon became, what might not have been achieved by the united seventeen; a confederacy which would have united the adamantine vigor of the Batavian and Frisian races with the subtler, more delicate, and more graceful national elements in which the genius of the Frank, the Roman, and the Romanized Celt were so intimately blended. As long as the Father of the country lived, such a union was possible. His power of managing men was so unquestionable, that there was always a hope even in the darkest hour, for men felt implicit reliance, as well on his intellectual resources as on his integrity.

This power of dealing with his fellowmen he manifested in the various ways in which it has been usually exhibited by statesmen. He possessed a ready eloquence—sometimes impassioned, oftener argumentative, always rational. His influence over his audience was unexampled in the annals of that country or age; yet he never condescended to flatter the people. He never followed the nation, but always led her in the path of duty and of honor, and was much more prone to rebuke the vices than to pander to the passions of his hearers. He never failed to administer ample chastisement to parsimony, to jealousy, to insubordination, to intolerance, to infidelity, wherever it was due, nor feared to confront the states or the people in their most angry hours, and

to tell them the truth to their faces. This commanding position he alone could stand upon, for his countrymen knew the generosity which had sacrificed his all for them, the self-denial which had eluded rather than sought political advancement, whether from king or people, and the untiring devotion which had consecrated a whole life to toil and danger in the cause of their emancipation. While, therefore, he was ever ready to rebuke, and always too honest to flatter, he at the same time possessed the eloquence which could convince or persuade. He knew how to reach both the mind and the heart of his hearers. His orations, whether extemporaneous or prepared—his written messages to the states-general, to the provincial authorities, to the municipal bodies—his private correspondence with men of all ranks, from emperors and kings down to secretaries, and even children—all show an easy flow of language, a fulness of thought, a power of expression rare in that age, a fund of historical allusion, a considerable power of imagination, a warmth of sentiment, a breadth of view, a directness of purpose—a range of qualities, in short, which would in themselves have stamped him as one of the master-minds of his century, had there been no other monument to his memory than the remains of his spoken or written eloquence. The bulk of his performances in this department was prodigious. Not even Philip was more industrious in the cabinet. Not even Granville held a more facile pen. He wrote and spoke equally well in French, German, or Flemish; and he possessed, besides, Spanish, Italian, Latin. The weight of his correspondence alone would have almost sufficed for the common industry of a lifetime, and although many volumes of his speeches and letters have been published, there remain in the various archives of the Netherlands and Germany many documents from his hand which will probably never see the light. If the capacity for unremitted intellectual labor in an honorable cause be the measure of human greatness, few minds could be compared to the “large composition” of this man.

The German Kaiser

By Harold Frederic

[The purpose of this series of studies which has been selected from the best of the many books written upon the German Emperor is to give CHAUTAUQUAN readers an accurate picture of the most striking personality among the crowned heads of Europe. The following extracts, taken from Harold Frederic's "The Young Emperor," published by Putnam's in 1892, will be followed by others from equally interesting and more recent writers.]

The Kaiser's Education

YOUNG WILLIAM was the first of his race to be sent to a public school, the big gymnasium at Cassel being selected for the purpose. The innovation was credited at the time to the eccentric liberalizing notions of his mother, the English Crown Princess. The old Kaiser did not like the idea, and Bismarck vehemently opposed it, but the parents had their way, and at the age of fifteen the lad went, along with his twelve-year-old brother Henry, and their tutor, Dr. Hinzpeter. They were lodged in an old schloss, which had been one of the Electoral residences, and out of school hours maintained a considerable seclusion. But in the school itself William was treated quite like any ordinary citizen's son.

It may have been a difficult matter for some of the teachers to act as if they were unconscious that this particular pupil was the heir to the Hohenzollerns, but men who were at the school at the time assure me they did so, with only one exception. The solitary flunkey, knowing that William was more backward in his Greek than most of his class, sought to curry favor with the Prince by warning him that the morrow's examination was to be, let us say, upon a certain chapter of Xenophon. The boy William received this hint in silence, but early the next morning went down to the classroom and wrote upon the blackboard in big letters the

information he had received, so that he might have no advantage over his fellows. This struck me when I heard it as a curious illustration of the boy's character. There seems to have been no excited indignation at the meanness of the tutor—but only the manifestation of a towering personal and family pride, which would not allow him to win a prize through profiting by knowledge withheld from the others.

During his three years at Cassel William was very democratic in his intercourse with the other boys. He may have been helped to this by the fact that he was one of the worst-dressed boys in the school—in accordance with an ancient family rule which makes the Hohenzollern children wear out their old clothes in a way that would astonish the average grocer's progeny. He was only an ordinary scholar so far as his studies went. At that time his brother Henry, who went to a different school, was conspicuously the brighter pupil of the two. Those who were at Cassel with the future Emperor have the idea that he was contented there, but he himself, upon reflection, is convinced that he did not like it.

At the age of eighteen William left Cassel and entered upon his university course at Bonn. Here his tutor, Hinzpeter, who had been his daily companion and mentor from childhood, parted company with him, and the young Prince passed into the hands of soldiers and men of the world. The change marks an important epoch in the formation of his character.

There is a photograph of him belonging to the earlier part of this Cassel period which depicts a refined, gentle, dreamy-faced German boy, with a soft, girlish chin, small arched lips with a suggestion of dimples at the corners, and fine meditative eyes. The forehead, though not broad, is of fair height and fullness. The dominant effect of the face is that of sweetness. Looking at it, one instinctively thinks "How fond that boy's parents must have been of him!" And they were fond in the extreme.

It is more than probable that the idea of sending the young Prince to the Cassel gymnasium originated with Dr. Hinzpeter. At all events, we know that he held advanced and extreme views as to the necessity of emphasizing the popular side of the Hohenzollern tradition.

This Prussian family has always differed radically from its other German neighbors in professing to be solicitous for the poor people rather than for the nobility's privileges and claims. Sometimes this has sunk to be a profession merely; more often it has been an active guiding principle. The lives of the second and third Kings of Prussia are filled with the most astonishing details of vigilant, ceaseless intermeddling in the affairs of peasant farmers, artisans, and wage-earners generally, hearing complaints, spying out injustice, and roughly seeing wrongs righted. When Prussia grew too big to be thus paternally administered by a King poking about on his rounds with a rattan and a taker of notes, the tradition still survived. We find traces of it all along down to our times in the legislation of the Diet in the direction of what is called State Socialism.

Dr. Hinzpeter felt the full inspiration of this tradition. He longed to make it more a reality in the mind of his princely pupil than it had ever been before. Thus it was that the lad was sent to Cassel, to sit on hard benches with the sons of simple citizens, and to get to know what the life of the people was like. Years afterwards this inspiration was to bear fruit.

But in 1877 the work of creating an ideally democratic and popular Hohenzollern was abruptly interrupted. Dr. Hinzpeter went back to Bielefeld, and young William entered the University of Bonn. The soft-faced, gentle-minded boy, still full of his mother's milk, his young mind sweetened and strengthened by the dreams of clemency, compassion, and earnest searchings after duty which he had imbibed from his teacher, suddenly found himself transplanted in new ground. The atmosphere was absolutely novel. Instead of being a boy among boys, he all at once found him-

self a prince amongst aristocratic toadies. In place of Hinzpeter, he had a military *aide* given him for principal companion, friend, and guide.

These next few years at the Rhenish university did not, we see now, wholly efface what Dr. Hinzpeter had done. But they obscured and buried his work, and reared upon its a superstructure of another sort—a different kind of William, redolent of royal pretensions, and youthful self-conceit, delighting in the rattle and clank of spurs and swords and dreaming of battlefields.

Poor Hinzpeter, in his Bielefeld retreat, could have had but small satisfaction in learning of the growth of the new William. The parents at Potsdam, too, who had built such loving hopes upon the tender and gracious promise of boyhood—they could not have been happy either.

The Kaiser and the Press

A whimsical susceptibility to affront in the printed word, no matter how mean or trivial the force back of it, is a trait which has often come near making Bismarck ridiculous, and it is not pleasant to note how largely William seems also to be possessed with it. He is as nervous about what the papers will say as a young *debutante* on the stage. Not only does he keep an anxious watch upon the talk of the German editors, but he ordains a vigilant scrutiny of the articles printed in foreign countries from the pens of correspondents stationed at Berlin. In this he is very German. Nobody in England, for example, ever dreams of caring about, or for the most part of even taking the trouble to learn, what is printed about English personages or politics. The foreign correspondents in London are as free as the wind that blows. But matters were ordered very differently at the beginning of the present reign in Berlin, and to this day journalists pursue their calling there under a sense of espionage hardly to be imagined in Fleet Street. It is true that a change for the better is distinctly visible of late, but it will be the work of many years to eradicate the low views

of German journalism which Bismarck has instilled, alike, unfortunately, in the royal palaces and the editorial offices of Prussia.

* * * * *

So recently as in May, 1890, some two months after the retirement of Bismarck, when the regular official deputation from the new Reichstag waited upon William, he pointed out to the Radical members that the *Freisinnige* press was criticizing the army estimates, which he and his generals had made as low as possible, and sharply warned them to see that a stop was put to such conduct on the part of their friends, the Radical editors. And in December of 1890, in his remarkable speech to the Educational Conference, he lightly grouped journalists with the "hunger candidates" and others who formed an over-educated class "dangerous to society."

The Kaiser's Infallibility

This inability to tolerate the expression of opinions different from his own is very Bismarckian. The ex-Chancellor, in fact, has for years past acted and talked upon the theory that anybody who did not agree with him must of necessity be unpatriotic, and came at last to hurl the epithet of *Reichs-feind*—enemy of the Empire—every time anyone disputed him on any point whatever.

William has roughly shorn away Bismarck's pretence to infallibility, but about the divine nature of his own claims he has no doubt. Some of his deliverances on questions of morals and ethics, in his capacity as a sort of helmeted Northern Pope, are calculated to bring a smile to the face of the Muse of History. His celebrated harangue to the Rector of the Berlin University, Professor Gebhardt, wherein he complained that, under the lead of democratic professors, the students were filled with destructive political doctrines, and concluded by gruffly saying, "Let your students go more to churches and less to beer cellars and fencing saloons"—was put down to his youth, for it dates



The Kaiser in the Uniform of a Spanish General.

from the close of 1888. It is interesting to note, from William's recent speech at Bonn, that he has decidedly altered his views on both beer-drinking and duelling among students. He began his reign, however, with ultra-puritanical notions on these as well as other subjects.

Long after this early deliverance his confidence in himself, so far from suffering abatement, had so magnified itself that he called the professors of another university together and lectured them upon the bad way in which they were taught history. He had discovered, he said, that there was now much fondness for treating the French Revolution as a great political movement, not without its helpful and beneficent results. This pernicious notion must no longer be encouraged in German universities, but students should be taught to regard the whole thing as one vast and unmitigated crime against God and man.

In this dogmatic phrase of his character William is much more like Frederic William I than like any of his nearer ancestors in the Hohenzollern line. These later monarchs, beginning with Frederic the Great and following his luminous example, were habitually chary about bothering themselves with their subjects' opinions. William at one time thought a good deal upon the fact that he was a successor of Frederic the Great, and by fits and starts set himself to imitate the earlier acts of that sovereign. His restless flying about from place to place, and, even more clearly, his edicts rebuking the army officers for gambling and for harshness to their men, were copied from the illustrious original. But in his attitude toward the mental and moral liberty of his subjects he goes back a generation to Frederic's father—and suggests to us also the reflection that he is a grandson of that highly self-confident gentleman whom English-speaking people knew as the Prince Consort.

Personal Appearance

In the matter of personal appearance there are two quite distinct and different Williams. Those who see the



The Kaiser as a Doctor of Laws, Cambridge University.

young German Emperor on a state occasion think of him as almost a tall man, with a stern, thoughtful face and the most distinguished bearing of any sovereign in Europe. He holds himself with arrow-like straightness, bears his uniform or robes with proud grace, and draws his features into a kind of mask of imperial dignity and reserved wisdom and strength very impressive to the beholder. It is with what may be called this official countenance of William's that the general public is chiefly familiar, for he assumes it in front of the photographer's camera, just as he does on parade, at formal gatherings, and even in his carriage when he drives through the streets. There is nothing to cavil at in this. One of the most important functions of an Emperor must surely be to look like an Emperor.

But in private life, when the absence of ceremonial and the presence of none but friends permits him to unbend, we see quite another William. He does not now give the impression of being a tall man, and his face wears a softened and kindly expression prone to break into an extremely sweet and winning smile. When this smiling mood is upon him he looks curiously like his uncle, the Duke of Connaught, although at other times the resemblance is not apparent. As a boy he was very white-skinned, with pale flaxen hair. Years of military outdoor life burned his face to a tawny brown, through which of late an unhealthy pallor, the product of overwork and sleeplessness, at times shows itself. His hair is of average darkness, but his small and habitually curled moustache is of a light yellowish color.

An observer who studied him closely during a whole day when he first visited Russia in 1888 describes him at the first morning review of troops as carrying himself almost pompously erect, and wearing a countenance of such gloomy severity that everybody was afraid to approach him, so that the officers who saw him for the first time jokingly whispered to one another that a new William the Taciturn had come into being. But in the afternoon, when the Czarina presided over a little garden party, limited almost to

the circle of royalty, William appeared in a straw hat and jaunty holiday costume, smoked cigarettes continuously, and laughed and chatted with everybody as gaily and affably as any little bank book-keeper snatching an unaccustomed day in the country.

The Kaiser Religious

The young Emperor has always been spoken of by those close to him as a sincerely religious man. During the past year his tendencies in this direction have visibly received a great impetus. The note of pious fervor is struck now with much greater frequency than formerly, and with a ring of candor which forbids the suggestion of pretence. He only the other day concluded a speech to a squad of recruits with the earnest injunction to use the Lord's Prayer, adding that he had himself derived much help from doing so. It is not an altogether pleasant commentary upon the value of the Christian profession of our day, that this remark has been cited as indication that William's mind was losing its balance. The scandalous stories which the French and Russian press set in circulation last summer about his mad behavior on his yacht, were all built upon the fact that he preached sermons to the crew—or rather read a series of little homilies prepared for the purpose by one of his chaplains. If this is a proof of madness, it might not be a bad idea to have William bite some of the other sovereigns and princes of Europe.

"But all of a sudden a breath of cold air struck her in the face. She raised her head in surprise. The door had just swung open. The Countess Marie, in desperation, brusquely threw a shawl over the money which was spread upon her knees, and waited. Some seconds passed, then a man appeared, bareheaded, wounded in the hand, panting, in evening dress. He shut the door again, sat down, looked at his neighbor with glittering eyes, then wrapped a handkerchief round his wrist, from which the blood was flowing.

"The young countess felt herself grow weak with fright. This man had certainly seen her counting her gold, and he was come to murder and to rob.

"He kept staring at her, breathless, his face convulsed, ready, no doubt, to make a spring.

"He said suddenly:

"'Have no fear, madame!'

"She answered nothing, being unable to open her mouth, hearing her heart beat and her ears hum.

"He continued:

"'I am not a criminal, madame.'

"She said nothing, but in a brusque movement which she made, her knees came close together, and her gold began to flow down upon the carpet as water flows from a gutter.

"The man, surprised, looked at this rivulet of metal, and suddenly he stooped to pick up the money.

"She rose in a mad fright, casting all her treasure to the ground, and ran to the door to throw herself out upon the track. But he understood what she was about to do, rushed forward, caught her in his arms, made her sit down by force, and holding her wrists: 'Listen, madame, I am not a criminal, and the proof is that I am going to pick up this money and give it back to you. But I am a lost man, a dead man, unless you help me to cross the frontier. I cannot tell you more. In one hour we shall be at the last Russian station; in one hour and twenty minutes we shall pass the boundary of the empire. If you do not rescue me, I am lost. And yet, madame, I have neither killed nor

stolen, nor done anything against my honor. I swear it to you. I cannot tell you more.'

"And getting down upon his knees, he picked up the gold, looking even for the last pieces, which had rolled far under the seats. Then, when the little leather bag was once more full, he returned it to his neighbor without adding a word, and again he went and sat in the other corner of the carriage.

"They no longer stirred, either one or the other. She remained motionless and dumb, still fainting with terror, then little by little growing more at ease. As for him, he did not make a gesture, a movement; he sat straight, his eyes fastened before him, very pale, as though he had been dead. From time to time she looked at him suddenly, and as suddenly looked away. He was a man about thirty, very handsome, with every appearance of a gentleman.

"The train ran through the darkness, cast rending cries across the night, sometimes slackened its pace, then went off again at full speed. But suddenly it slowed, whistled several times, and stopped.

"Ivan appeared at the door to get his orders.

"The Countess Marie, with a trembling voice, considered her strange companion for the last time, then said to her servant, with a brusque voice:

" 'Ivan, you are to return to the count; I have no more need of you.'

"The man, speechless, opened his enormous eyes. He stammered:

" 'But—Barine!'

"She continued:

" 'No, you are not to come; I have changed my mind. I desire that you remain in Russia. Here is money to return. Give me your cap and your cloak.'

"The old servant, quite bewildered, bared his head and held out his cloak. He always obeyed without reply, being well accustomed to the sudden wishes and the irresistible

caprices of his masters. And he withdrew, the tears in his eyes.

"The train went on, running towards the frontier.

"Then the Countess Marie said to her neighbor :

" 'These things are for you, monieur ; you are Ivan, my servant. I add only one condition to what I do: it is that you shall never speak to me, that you shall not address me a single word, either to thank me or for any purpose whatever.'

"The unknown bowed without uttering a word.

"Very soon they came to a stop once more, and officials in uniform visited the train. The countess offered them her papers, and pointing to the man seated at the back of the carriage :

" 'My servant, Ivan. Here is his passport.

"The train went on.

"During the whole night, they remained in tête-à-tête, both silent.

"In the morning, when they stopped at a German station, the unknown got down ; then, standing straight in the door-way :

" 'Forgive my breaking my promise, madame ; but I have deprived you of your servant, and it is right that I should fill his place. Have you need of anything ?'

"She answered coldly :

" 'Go and find my maid.'

"He went to do so, then disappeared.

"When she got out of the carriage at some restaurant or other, she perceived him at a distance looking at her. They reached Mentone."

The doctor was silent a second, then resumed :

"One day, as I was receiving my patients in my office, I saw enter a tall young fellow, who said to me :

" 'Doctor, I come to ask news about the Countess Marie Baranow. I am, although she does not know me, a friend of her husband.'

"I replied :

"'She is doomed. She will never go back to Russia.'

"And the man suddenly commenced to sob, then he got up and went out, reeling like a drunkard.

"The same night I told the countess that a stranger had come to inquire from me about her health. She seemed moved, and told me all the story which I have just told you. She added:

"'That man, whom I do not know at all, now follows me like a shadow, I meet him every time I go out; he looks at me after a strange fashion, but he has never spoken.'

"She reflected, then added:

"'See, I would wager he is under my window.'

"She left her easy-chair, went to pull back the curtains, and sure enough, she showed me the man who had come to see me, now seated there on a bench upon the promenade, his eyes lifted towards the hotel. He perceived us, rose, and went off without once turning his head.

"And from that time forward, I assisted at a surprising sorrowful thing—at the silent love of these two beings, who did not even know one another.

"He loved her with the affection of an animal who has been saved, and who is grateful and devoted unto death. He came each day to say to me: 'How is she?' understanding that I had divined the secret. And he cried when he had seen her pass each day feebler and paler.

"She said to me:

"'I have spoken but a single time to that strange man, and it seems to me as if I had known him for twenty years.'

"And when they met, she would return his bow with a grave and charming smile. I could see that she was happy—she, the abandoned, the doomed—I could see that she was happy to be loved like this, with such respect and such consistency, with such exaggerated poetry, with this devotion which was ready for all things. And notwithstanding, faithful to her mystical resolve, she wildly refused to receive him, to know his name, to speak with him. She said: 'No, no, that would spoil for me this curious

friendship. We must remain strangers one to the other.'

"As for him, he also was certainly a kind of Don Quixote, because he made no attempt to approach her. He meant to keep to the end the absurd promise of never speaking, which he had made her in the railway carriage.

"Often, during her weary hours of weakness, she rose from her long chair, and went to open the curtains a little way to see if he was there, beneath her window. And when she had seen him, always motionless upon his bench, she went back and lay down with a smile upon her lips.

"She died one day about ten o'clock. As I was leaving the hotel he came up to me with a distracted face; he had already heard the news.

" 'I would like to see her, for one second, in your presence,' said he.

"I took him by the arm and went back into the house.

"When he was before the couch of the dead he seized her hand and kissed it with an endless kiss, then escaped like a madman."

The doctor again was silent; then continued:

"This is certainly the strangest railway adventure that I know. It must also be said that men take sometimes the wildest freaks."

A woman murmured, half aloud:

"Those two people were not so crazy as you think. They were—they were—"

But she could not speak further, she was crying so. As we changed the conversation to calm her, we never knew what she had wished to say.

The Vesper Hour*

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

At the opening "Vesper Hour" of the new year in the C. L. S. C. perhaps I cannot do better than to reply to certain questions which have recently come to me and which may often have arisen in the minds of other Chautauqua readers. One member raises the following question: When we speak of the Jews as "chosen people" are we not implying a lack of justice in God in dealing with other races?

The most interesting of all the races is the Hebrew. To say nothing of the Biblical records, in the details of the history from the days of Abraham to those of St. John we find the most interesting material in the studies which have been made of the persecutions, the achievements, the indefatigable efforts and the marvelous successes which individuals and families have scored. It is too late in our modern civilization to depreciate the race as a whole, or to speak words of contempt of individual Hebrews. For industry, tact, persistency, patience under abuse, fidelity to religious conviction the Jews are not only not excelled, they are not equaled in the annals of history. They were, according to our Christian theory, a chosen people with a specific mission of preparation for a consummation the most wonderful in all history—the birth, the training and the manifestation of the Messiah, the Christ whom as Christians we recognize as the ripe fruit of the whole Jewish system, a human-divine product through whom the highest civilization of the race has been realized and through whom the salvation of the race—the representatives of the race who give consent—is guaranteed. We Christians owe all that is best and noblest in our civilization to the Jew. The most precious names on our list of saints, heroes, teachers from Moses to Christ are names of Jews. The great Christian

*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

authorities, Paul, Peter, John, Matthew, Luke, all were Jews.

The Jews we always, as Christian people, say were a "chosen people." To them we are indebted for all that is best in the beginnings of the Christian faith. When we say that they were a "chosen" people we do not assume that our great God was at all a partial God, giving advantage to one people above another. In the divine wisdom and love all peoples the world over and the ages through have some knowledge of Deity, some intimations and leadings which if followed will invariably and inevitably bring more light to the individual who is willing to obey the light he has. God has had his witness among all races. No individual with the moral sense but has his opportunity to choose between the higher and the lower, the truth and error. And as each man follows the light he has a clearer light and a larger opportunity has been given him. Everybody has a chance. No one is without ability to show what his preference is and what line of life he will follow. The Jews were a chosen people, chosen for a special work, chosen to illustrate the divine providence in all nations and for all people. They were favored in being illustrations of God's universal care. What Israel had all peoples in some measure had. God calls all nations to honor Him, to follow His direction. And the career of Israel was a lesson for individual lives and for national life in all climes and in all periods of history. The ideals of personal character set forth by distinguished Israelites were designed to foreshadow the Messiah and to serve as examples for all time, and for Gentiles of every kind.

The question is asked: "Do you not think that the present study of Sociology in college and social 'settlements' is tending to displace religious interest?" In reply I say with all possible emphasis: *The very reverse is true.*

There is a new interest in the civilized world in the study of social questions. We find it everywhere. The great missionary movements projected and carried on during the past century have awakened a new interest in the great question of the relations of the individual to society and the ob-

ligation of all men everywhere to ask, How may man help man? How may society help the individual? How may the evils and sufferings and the sins of society be removed and society become strong in righteousness and philanthropic impulse? What is religion but the love of man born of the knowledge and love of God? What did the Son of Man in his teachings say concerning the two sides of human obligation? Thou shalt love the Lord God with all thy heart and thy neighbor as thyself. Modern Sociology is organized, scientific, efficient Christianity of the noblest type. It is carried on by foremost Christian believers. It develops religious faith and sympathy. It wins men and women to a higher appreciation of Christianity.

Some one writes as follows: "Do you think the church and the world are drawing nearer together to the detriment of the church?" I answer promptly and emphatically that what we call the "world" is often only the awakened "society" that has become aware of its responsibility to all members of the race and that for the first time apprehends the theory of Jesus that the highest service of God is in the love and service of our fellow men; that he best worships who helps, always, of course, keeping in mind both divine worship and in human service the necessity of having the heart filled with the love of both the divine Father and all human brothers which includes in a very important sense the entire race. It can never be a "detriment" to the church to love even the "Samaritan" as Jesus did and to do for the good of one's "enemy" just what one would wish that enemy to do for him. No unselfish love and service can possibly do anything but good to the doer and to the recipient. It is a most unworthy view of religious obligation that limits religion to a certain class of ecclesiastical functions, a fixed and unalterable creed statement or the building up of an "institution" at the expense and the inevitable damage of society and "the state." Whatever makes for human well-being both in time and eternity is a legitimate object of Church sympathy, enthusiasm and endeavor.



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THE C. L. S. C. "EASY FOR ANYBODY."

If you are a new Chautauquan beginning your course this year, you are doubtless starting out with enthusiasm. Perchance with the ardor of a new convert, you are setting a pace for yourself rather too strenuous for a busy world, and so may begin to flag early in the race. Hence this word of suggestion that you may get the most out of your four years' venture. The C. L. S. C. course is for rest and enjoyment, and "rest" is a word of large meaning in the vocabulary of grown men and women. It is sometimes spelled "growth" or "inspiration" or "vision." So the course must not be made a task or it will speedily lose its charm. The phrases "College Outlook" and "School for out-of-School People" as applied to the C. L. S. C. suggest to some the thought of rigid rules and recitations. But "out-of-school people" are a privileged class who have met life and developed individuality and the C. L. S. C. recognizes this fact. So you are free to select your own methods; to read for the joy of the reading,—and as much or as little as you choose. Four books in a year represent a small undertaking. But the "School" which prescribes them has chosen them with care and at the end of the four years you will realize that your mental growth has been an "all round" one.

C. L. S. C. Round Table





City Hall, Wellsville, New York, where the public library is situated at present.



Typical Residence in Santiago, Chile.



Typical Views in Santiago Chile, as seen by a resident member of the C. L. S. C. Class of '08.



Dr. Emil Reich.

A few years ago a young ranchman read the four years' course of the C. L. S. C. while tending a herd of sheep on the lonely plains of the far West. He had no books of reference, no "Circle" with whose members he could discuss his books. He simply read and enjoyed them and they opened a great new world to him. When he came back home to his college-trained sister and her companions he entered into their world as naturally as if his "campus" had been in the midst of ivy clad buildings instead of on the wind swept plains of Wyoming.

DR. EMIL REICH.

The author of the first book for the coming year, "Foundations of Modern Europe," is Dr. Emil Reich of Esperjes, Hungary. Dr. Reich studied at the Universities of Prague, Budapest, and Vienna, and holds the degree of Doctor of Law. Up to his thirtieth year he studied almost exclusively in libraries, but later as he mentions in his preface to "Foundations of Modern Europe," he visited various countries in order that he might observe and study nationalities at first hand. He spent five years in the United States, four in France, and has been with interruptions for almost nine years in England. He has lectured frequently at Oxford, Cambridge, and London Universities, and was employed by the British government to prepare its side of the case in the Venezuela boundary affair. He is the author of a number of publications, among them a History of Civilization; Hungarian Literature; Success among Nations; The Foreigner in History; several historical atlases, etc.



Mr. George Wharton Edwards.

MR. GEORGE WHARTON EDWARDS.

Mr. George W. Edwards, whose "Reading Journey Through the Hollow Land" begins with this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, was born in Fair Haven, Conn. He received his academic education in Antwerp and in Paris. He has been awarded numerous medals both here and abroad for his painting and also for his work in black and white, as he is one of the best known of our present day illustrators. For five years he was director of the Art Department of *Collier's Magazine* and is now connected with the American Banknote Company. He is a member of the American Water Color Society, the National Sculpture Society, the New York Water Color Club, the Author's Club, the Ex-Libris Society of London, and the Society "Amsterdamsch" of the Netherlands.

He painted a mural decoration entitled Hendrik Hudson for the West Point Military Academy and is the author of a number of charming sketches,—“Break O’Day and Other Stories,” “Thumb Nail Sketches,” “P’tit Matininc Monotones,” etc. He has illustrated Oliver Wendell Holmes’ “Last Leaf,” Spenser’s “Epithalamium,” and “Old English Love Songs” and “Old English Ballads.”

THE FIRST BOOK OF THE YEAR.

Don't make the mistake of thinking that you must know all the facts to which Professor Reich alludes in his "Foundations of Modern Europe" in order to enjoy and find profit in it. Few people except trained historical scholars could explain every one of the author's allusions. In most cases the facts are given with sufficient fullness to show what the writer is endeavoring to bring out. Try to get the chief ideas which he emphasizes in each chapter and you will find great enjoyment in his arguments and conclusions. Get someone to read it with you if possible. You may disagree with the author and you will want someone who has read the book to listen while you argue your case!

CHAUTAQUAN. Illustrated by stereopticon, many of the slides being from rare and inaccessible examples of our native painters and sculptors.

Any one of the following series of three lectures may also be given singly.

I. DUTCH ART.

A single lecture designed to supplement the series of articles on Dutch artists by Professor Zug to be studied in the C. L. S. C. Course for this year. Mr. Zug's work will treat of Holland's great masters; and Miss Spencer's lecture will deal with Dutch Art as a whole, its origin, its gift to mankind, and what it stands for in the story of the world's art.

2. THE DEAD CITIES OF SICILY.

One lecture preparatory to the Classical Year in the C. L. S. C. describing these wonderful cities (such as old Syracuse) built by the ancient Greeks on the glorious island of Sicily, when it formed a part of "Magna Graecia." These marvelous Grecian remains, surrounded as they now are by all the picturesque beauty of modern Italian life, tell a story of deep interest. Both the material of the lecture and the pictures illustrating it are to be used for the first time in this country.

3. GREECE TODAY.

A single lecture, also bearing on the Classical Year. It is concerned with modern Greece; its government and social conditions, the Greek Church, the Royal Family, scientific research, education, commerce, manufacture, the Greek men and women of today. The pictures are unique, gathered throughout Greece, and showing Greek scenery, cities, customs and costumes.



C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.	
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November, second Sunday.	INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY — May 18.
MILTON DAY—December 9.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
COLLEGE DAY — January, last Thursday.	INAUGURATION DAY — August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.	ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.	RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.	
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.	
ADDISON DAY—May 1.	

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR OCTOBER.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Part I.
The Present European Equilibrium.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter I. The War of American Independence as a European Struggle, to page 14.

SECOND WEEK—OCT. 8-15.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter I. The War of American Independence as a European Struggle, concluded.

THIRD WEEK—OCT. 15-22.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapters II and III. The French Revolution.

FOURTH WEEK—OCT. 22-29.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in Holland." Chapter I. Holland in History, page 40.
"Dutch Art and Artists." Chapter I. Frans Hals and the portrait.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Discussion: Professor Emil Reich and his point of view. (See Preface and Round Table.)
2. Brief Oral Reports, with map review on: The Wars of the "Spanish Succession," the "Austrian Succession," and the "Seven Years War," showing the cause of each and the territorial changes which were brought about. A rough sketch map should be prepared which will make vivid the state of Europe at these different periods. (Maps will be found in histories of Europe, encyclopedias, etc. See also Round Table.)
3. Review and Discussion of first fourteen pages of "Foundations of Modern Europe," bringing out the chief points made by the author.
4. Roll Call: Answered by quotations from all available American histories tending to prove or disprove the assertions of Professor Reich regarding their statements of the cause of the American Revolution. (An interesting book in this connection is "American History and its Geographic Conditions," by Miss Ellen F. Semple.)
5. Review and Discussion of "The Present European Equilibrium."
6. Reading: Selections from recent articles in magazines or reviews bearing upon the "European Equilibrium" or from Jean DeBloch's "The Future of War."

SECOND WEEK.

1. Review of last half of Chapter I in "Foundations of Modern Europe."
2. Discussion of unusual words in the entire chapter.
3. Reading of Rousseau's "Emile" with reading of selections from it.
4. Roll Call: Mention two statements made in this chapter which seem to you especially worth remembering.

C. L. S. C. Round Table

5. Study of the article on Frans Hals. Each member should be assigned one of the pictures described, showing how it illustrates the artist's characteristics. All other available pictures should be secured. The monograph on "Hals" in the "Masters in Art Series" (Bates & Guild, Boston, Mass.) contains ten fine half-tones and can be secured for twenty cents. Many good pictures can be found in old magazines.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Brief Character Studies: Mirabeau, Louis XVI., Danton, Robespierre, Madame Roland, and St. Just.
2. Review and Discussion of the French Revolution, omitting details and bringing out clearly the significant steps in its progress.
3. Reading: Browning's "The Lost Leader" with explanation of its significance; Selection from Carlyle's "French Revolution."
4. Book Review: "The Reds of the Midi," by Felix Gras.
5. Oral Report: Victor Hugo's "Ninety-Three," a phase of the French Revolution—see sketch in the C. L. S. C. book for this year, "Studies in European Literature."
6. Reading: Selection from "Ninety-Three."
7. Roll Call: Current Events relating to happenings in Europe.

FOURTH WEEK.

Note: One or more programs each month will be devoted to Holland and the several periods of its history studied in detail. William of Orange and his time, events associated with the Pilgrims, etc., though referred to in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be treated in later programs.

1. Brief review of the Reading Journey to page 40 through the time of William the Silent, summing up the significant features of Dutch history.
2. Oral Reports or Papers: Holland and the House of Burgundy; The Early influence of the towns upon Dutch life; the Great Privilege. (See "Brave Little Holland," W. E. Griffiths, "The Story of Holland," Rogers, "Holland and the Hollanders," Meldrum, and encyclopedia accounts of the Hanseatic League, etc.)
3. Map Review of Holland showing its general relation to Europe at the successive periods of its history. (See Round Table.)
4. Roll Call: National Characteristics of the Hollander. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country" and all available books.)
5. Reading: Selection from Chapter I of "Holland and its People," by De Amicis (a very charming book and though written some years ago, the acknowledged classic on Holland.)
6. Discussion: Let each member bring an answer to the question, "In what respects has Holland influenced the world?"

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special Programs for graduate Circles and Clubs Specializing upon the two Dutch Series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

FIRST WEEK.

1. Quiz: On the Reading Journey, Part I to page 40 through the time of William the Silent. (The summary in this first article gives a general view, the details of which will be brought out in later programs.)

2. Map Review of Holland showing its general relation to the rest of Europe at the successive periods of its history.
3. Roll Call: National Characteristics of the Hollander. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country" and all available books.)
4. Oral Reports or Papers: Holland and the House of Burgundy; The Great Privilege; The Early influence of the towns upon Dutch life. (See "The Story of Holland," by Rogers, "Brave little Holland," by W. E. Griffis, encyclopedia accounts of the Hanseatic League, "Holland and the Hollanders," by Meldrum, etc.)
5. Reading: Selection from Chapter I of "Holland and its People," by De Amicis. (A very charming book and, though written years ago, the acknowledged classic on Holland.)

SECOND WEEK.

1. Character Sketch: Charles the V. (See "The Story of Holland," Rogers, histories of Europe, encyclopedias, etc.)
2. Reading: Selections from article entitled "Strange Lineage of a Royal Baby," *Cosmopolitan*, 43:465, September, 1907.
3. Oral Report: The work of Motley as historian of the Netherlands.
4. Paper: Philip II. (See all available histories, encyclopedias, etc.)
5. Oral Reports: Character Sketches of Alva, Don John of Austria, and Alexander of Parma.
6. Paper: William of Orange. (See Library Shelf, encyclopedias, and histories.)
7. Reading: The Assassination of William of Orange. (See Library Shelf in this Magazine.)
8. Roll Call: Answers to the question "Why does William of Orange take rank as one of the world's great men?"
9. Reading: From Chapter of Delft in De Amicis' "Holland and its People," containing references to William of Orange.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Roll Call: Answered by naming educational or religious leaders of the Netherlands from the fourteenth to the sixteenth century and for what each was famous. (See "Brave Little Holland," by W. E. Griffis.)
2. Map Review of Europe in the sixteenth century, especially Germany, the Netherlands, and France.
3. Paper: In what respects was Holland ahead of other countries in the time of William the Silent? (See Bibliography.)
4. Oral Report: Why did Protestantism take one form in Germany and another in Holland?
5. Pronunciation Match on proper names in Chapter I of the Reading Journey. (In the October CHAUTAUQUAN will be found a list of Dutch proper names and their pronunciation.)

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Oral Reports: The Dutch Anabaptists; William Brewster; William Bradford. (See "The Pilgrims in their Three Homes," W. E. Griffis.)
2. Paper: The Pilgrims in Amsterdam. (See above.)
3. Map Review: Showing various localities in England and Holland associated with the Pilgrims.
4. Paper: Social Life of the Pilgrims in Leyden. (See above.)

5. Oral Reports: The Synod of Dordrecht in 1618; when and why and how the Pilgrims emigrated.
6. Roll Call: Explanation of pictures of places in Holland connected with the Pilgrims.



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS.

CHAPTER I. THE PRESENT EUROPEAN EQUILIBRIUM.

1. What is meant by the European equilibrium? 2. By what influences are nations chiefly governed? 3. What do the friendly visits of sovereigns and the enormous European armies signify as to the peace of Europe? 4. What combinations at present support the European balance? 5. To what recent events may this "balance" be traced? 6. What were the objects of the "Triple Alliance" as first planned between Germany and Austria? 7. When and why did Italy join it? 8. What secret treaty of Bismarck's was denounced by this alliance? 9. How were the other European nations affected by the Triple Alliance? 10. Describe "the affair of 1875" and its result. 11. What change in European relations have occurred since 1901? 12. What conditions led to the forming of an Anglo-Japanese alliance in 1902? 13. What did the treaty secure? 14. What statesmen later brought about the Anglo-French alliance? 15. What subjects were discussed in the three conventions which led up to this treaty? 16. What was the most important feature of this Anglo-French alliance? 17. Why was the Morocco situation a delicate one? 18. What is the present state of the question? 19. When and by whom was the Anglo-Russian Convention signed? 20. What three sets of questions does it include? 21. What were the general conclusions reached in the case of each? 22. What effect had this treaty upon India? 23. What are the really effective guaranties of peace?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW-LAND."

CHAPTER I.

1. Sketch briefly the history of Holland previous to the fifteenth century. 2. How did the country become subject to the Duke of Burgundy? 3. Trace the family connections which brought Holland under the power of Spain. 4. What treatment did Holland receive at the hands of Charles V.? 5. What further indignities did Philip II. heap upon the country? 6. What champions of the people's liberty now arose and what did they demand? 7. What was Philip's response? 8. How did the Dutch people secure their independence? 9. Who was William the Silent? 10. Against what odds did he have to contend? 11. Sum up the chief events from the death of William to the peace of Westphalia. 12. Describe Holland's various struggles with England in the seventeenth century for naval supremacy. 13. What was Holland's ill fated connection with France from 1795-1815? 14. Why did the union of Belgium in 1815 prove disastrous? 15. Who were the immediate ancestors of Queen Wilhelmina? 16. What was Prince Henry's title before his marriage? 17. What two elements in the Dutch civilization account for its great influence? 18. How did

early Dutch history compare with that of England? 19. How was Holland's influence felt in the Reformation? 20. In what varied ways have the Dutch people proved their genius? 21. What is true of their sense of civic honor? 22. Illustrate Holland's attitude toward freedom of trade? 23. How do Dutchman and American seem to resemble each other?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS.

1. When do we find the first distinctive school of Dutch art? 2. What were the characteristics of the painting that preceded it? 3. What are the characteristics of the first great Dutch painting? 4. Why is Hals remarkable as a portrait painter? 5. When and where did Hals live? 6. What paintings other than portraits has Hals left us? 7. What were the Shooting Companies? 8. What great difficulties did the painting of the Shooting Companies present? 9. Who was Judith Leyster? 10. How does her work resemble that of Hals?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What is meant by Russian nihilism? 2. Who is Mr. Henry Norman? 3. How did France secure possession of Tunis? 4. Who is the present Chancellor of the German Empire? 5. Who are the present Ambassadors of Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Italy, and Austria to the United States? 6. Name the present Premier and also the President of the French Republic.

1. What was the Order of the Golden Fleece? 2. How extensive was the Dukedom of Burgundy in the fifteenth century? 3. What were some of the important provisions of the "Great Privilege?" 4. Who were the Beggars of the Sea? 5. What was the Massacre of Bartholomew?

1. Who was Van Dyke? 2. What are some of his most famous paintings?



NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

The first session of the Round Table for the New Year brought out a large delegation of Chautauquans. New members of the Class of 1912, enthusiastic and full of eager curiosity, reported themselves ready for work. "I am reminded," said Pendragon as he congratulated the new readers, "of the advice an experienced settlement worker once gave to a young enthusiast about to enter a new field in a distant city. She did not say 'Keep up your courage,' or 'Cling to your ideals' or any of those phrases which we sometimes seem to think are indispensable to the young novice, but 'Don't take yourself too seriously!' It's rather a good motto for Chautauquans for sometimes we are in danger of surrounding ourselves with such an atmosphere of serious study that our friends are repelled by our very intensity.

"These two photographs," said Pendragon, "have been sent by an individual reader in Santiago, Chile. They show some of the attractive features of that city. Miss Sailer is a member of the

class of 1908 and has been teaching English History. She writes, 'The studies of the English Year have broadened my knowledge and in this way have deepened the interest of my class. I wait eagerly for the arrival of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. It is such a convenient size that I often read the numbers as I travel in the street car.' It would seem that people in Chile find it necessary to save time as much as we do in America," commented Pendragon as he opened another letter.

"A year ago," he continued," "you will remember that when we held our 'library' meeting at this time, I told you of the efforts of a reader in Osceola, New York, to secure good reading for a little hamlet where the small library established in her own store represented the chief intellectual center of the region round about. As public opinion did not always sustain her efforts to secure a state traveling library, it was suggested that some of the circles might be glad to lend a hand. I've just received this letter which shows in what friendly fashion the circles responded. Miss Mary L. Cowles writes as follows:"

"We had another 'Traveling Library' during the winter and spring and I think we never have had one that was used more than this one. One boy aged about eighteen read all the books in both libraries (seventy-five volumes), excepting a few of the very deepest. Through the kindness of Chautauquans we have received quite a nucleus of a library. One lady in Ohio sent a number of volumes and magazines which we used in our Circle last winter. I wrote, thanking her for her help and my letter was returned unclaimed. She gave only her initials. A lady in Vermont was the second to respond. She sent several good books and magazines. She said she had taken her course alone, being unable to interest others in her town, and she almost envied those who had congenial people to read with them. The next installment came from a gentleman who is a member of a Circle at Canandaigua, New York. He sent several volumes of the Chautauqua Reading Course, besides several other good books, and also magazines and papers. The last gift came from a Circle at Mount Vernon, New York, and like the other boxes, contained both books and magazines, all of them good to add to our library. We now have almost fifty volumes, and many magazines and papers. These are not yet ready for circulation, but we expect to get them ready to circulate next month. One gentleman who has a summer home here has promised us some books, and I know of a few others who I think will help us a little when they know of our effort to get a library. If you would like a list of the books we have I will send it. We are grateful to those who have so kindly responded to your suggestion. We feel quite encouraged, and think a library here is a possibility. I am very anxious to have a boys' club of some sort during the coming winter. The influences here in the wrong direction are very strong, and we must try to do something to turn the tide. I think we could arrange to have a reading room in a vacant house, but do not know of anyone to take charge of it."

"The wealth of good reading matter," commented Pendragon,

"which many of us throw aside thoughtlessly would keep many a little village supplied with interesting reading. Every circle through its members or elsewhere can find some such center. Why not have a regular meeting toward the close of each year when members may bring such books and magazines as they or their friends can spare and send them to some designated address. In many families children grow up, and move away, leaving books which they do not care to take. Libraries often make their way to some old book store when many of their contents have real present day value. The gifts of a few circles have put 'courage' into a struggling librarian. Don't drop the work now but keep in friendly touch with Miss Cowles."

"You asked last year," said a delegate from Wellsville, New York, "about our Public Library which developed from a Chautauqua Circle. I'm sending you some photographs which will show how it looks at present, for our library is housed in the City Hall. We hope next year to be able to introduce you to our beautiful new building." At Pendragon's request the speaker, Miss Lillian Carpenter, gave some further details. "Our library," she said, "has been the special work of the Monday Club but we trace our pedigree straight back to the early days of Chautauqua when Mr. and Mrs. J. H. Brown of our village spent the summer at the Assembly and were present at the inauguration of the C. L. S. C. They were among the first to join and the Chautauqua Circle established on their return continued to meet for some twenty-five years. In '90-1 when the Circle was studying an 'English Year' a few members held an extra meeting each week for the special study of Shakespeare. The Club thus started proved so interesting that two years later we took the name of Monday Club and became a formal organization. For years the need of a public library had been discussed among us and at this time it came to a focus. The Academy Library had been destroyed by fire but the books of an extinct 'Wellsville Library Association' were at the disposal of the club. The ideas of the club were too altruistic for such narrow scope for a public library was our ideal although the impression had gone abroad that the library was to be for the sole benefit of the Monday Club and much tact was required to overcome various forms of opposition. At nearly every meeting something was done towards the promotion of the cherished idea, our state law concerning the establishment of town libraries was studied and soon we had one of the famous New York State Traveling Libraries, which, by the courtesy of the school board, was placed in one of the unused schoolrooms while the City Hall was being built. It was in charge of the Monday Club,—they were caretakers. In 1894 two hundred

dollars were received from the state for the purchase of books. This appropriation was based upon the value of the books from the old library and those donated by individuals. Of course the founding of a Free Public Library is no small undertaking. Time, toil, patience, and perseverance were required to accomplish such a work. The next year a large sum was added to the library fund by a course of lectures and the club was given the use of a commodious room in the City Hall. The public began at once to show its interest by coming in large numbers for the loan of books. Our city is now giving five hundred dollars yearly for its support and the Monday Club is custodian of the finest Free Public Library in this section of the state. At first it was open for only two days each week but since 1898 it has been open two hours each week day and three hours on Sunday as a reading room.

"During these years we have been slowly accumulating a fund for the proper housing of our library in a home of its own. Our worthy president has trained us to such habits of thrift as welcomed the smallest of additions to our store. Such modest sources of revenue as penny collections and the sale of old rubbers have not been despised while large sums have been added by entertainments or by personal gifts. Our president's significant reticence on several occasions when the library fund was under discussion led us to suspect her of cherishing a secret we might be glad to share. She betrayed no other hint of it, however, until her return from Florida last year, when she announced that Mr. David A. Howe of Williamsport, Pa., a former resident of Wellsville, had offered to give \$15,000 for the erection of a library building as soon as a suitable site should be secured. You can imagine the state of mind of the Monday Club! A very desirable corner lot has now been purchased, plans for a handsome modern building have been accepted and we will soon have a permanent home for our Free Public Library which in these fourteen years has grown from nothing to 8,600 volumes, supplying some 2,000 readers in this and surrounding towns. It is the pride of our city and a factor for better conditions in our community. This is one of the victories of peace and we venture to believe develops character as certainly as if it had been wrought by martial music, swords, and guns. Our club motto has now for us a new significance, "The end crowns the work."



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EUROPE.

The following Review Questions upon "Foundations of Modern Europe" cover the entire volume, though only three chapters are assigned for study in October. Members may find it convenient to remove these pages and paste them in the book itself.

CHAPTER I. THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

1. In what respects has the influence of France in the American War of Independence been underestimated by Americans? 2. What has been true also of the English attitude? 3. Why have the French failed to emphasize this influence? 4. Why should the American Revolution be looked upon as an international event? 5. Why has Europe since 1815 avoided international wars? 6. What great international wars took place in the eighteenth century? 7. What similar causes promoted the unity of Italy and the American War of Independence? 8. What ideal motives are usually attributed to the rebellious colonists in the American Revolution? 9. Why did the Americans cheerfully join the British against the French from 1755 to 1762? 10. How did the American "Hinterland" compare with that of other countries? 11. What predictions were made regarding American secession from England? 12. What was the true secret of American opposition to Great Britain? 13. Contrast the position of Lord Chatham after 1763 with that of Bismarck in 1866. 14. Why was France "almost more dangerous when on the defensive?" 15. Show why the course pursued by Maria Theresa in 1756 was wise and that of the French government weak. 16. How did Katharine II. of Russia show her political wisdom at about this time? 17. Why was it unnecessary for England to keep up her attitude of rancor toward France? 18. Why unwise? 19. Why was the influence of the Encyclopaedists so far reaching? 20. Who was Beaumarchais? 21. By what means did he accomplish his purpose of revenge? 22. What recognition has his work received? 23. What was the strategic problem of the War of Independence? 24. Show the importance of the struggle off Cape Henry. 25. Show how battles which are not dramatic have sometimes had far reaching influences.

CHAPTER II. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. (1.)

1. Why is the French Revolution the most important event of modern history? 2. What different forms did the Revolution assume in France and in Germany? 3. In what general respects was the reign of Louis XVI. superior to that of Louis XV.? 4. What criticism is made of the statements of Arthur Young? 5. Illustrate the fact that the different parts of France had little in common in the seventeenth century. 6. How and why had this changed by the time of Louis XVI.? 7. What effect had this upon the education of the people? 8. What significance had *la grande peur*? 9. What were the conspicuous qualities of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette? 10. In what respects was Mirabeau a remarkable man? 11. Who formed the famous National Assembly? 12. What important point was carried by the third estate? 13. How was the importance of the French Revolution underestimated at this period? 14. What remarkable event took place on August 4, 1789? 15. Why did the French Revolution arouse such interest in the neighboring governments?

CHAPTER III. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. (2.)

1. What effect did the attempted flight of Louis XVI. have upon the French people? 2. By what dangers were they menaced? 3. Why and how did the powers misconstrue the situation in France? 4. What was the famous proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick? 5. What were the September Massacres? 6. What similar illustration of the mob spirit was shown in England during

ner civil war? 7. What was the effect of the battle of Valmy? 8. What great spectacle did France present at this time? 9. How can "The Terror" be explained? 10. What important service was rendered by the Committee of Public Safety? 11. What were some of the great reforms instituted by the "Convention?" 12. What striking personalities show the tremendous energy which displayed itself in France at this time? 13. How did the army come to dominate the country?

CHAPTER IV. NAPOLEON. (1.)

1. In what respects was Napoleon a complex character? 2. Why is it impossible to estimate him truly? 3. What influence may his Corsican origin have had upon Napoleon? 4. Show how Napoleon was the natural culmination of the French Revolution. 5. Describe his personal qualities. 6. To what causes are his military successes due? 7. Why are they considered "classical campaigns?" 8. Who were some of the monarchs and statesmen pitted against Napoleon at different times? 9. What was, in general, the cause of his overthrow? 10. What influences first made him general-in-chief of the Italian army? 11. How did his genius show itself in his Lombardy campaign? 12. What influence had this success upon him?

CHAPTER V. NAPOLEON. (2.)

1. What circumstances led to Napoleon's invasion of Egypt? 2. What peculiar influence did Egypt exercise upon him? 3. What led him to abandon this field? 4. What victories did he achieve in the next three years? 5. By what two great processes did he help to prepare the way for German unity? 6. What work did he do for French education? 7. Describe his share in constructing the famous Code Napoleon. 8. How has the code influenced other countries? 9. Why did France receive the news of the victory at Austerlitz with relative coldness? 10. Compare the attitude of France toward Jeanne d'Arc and Napoleon. 11. When and how did the Holy Roman Empire fall? 12. How did Napoleon's victories at Jena and Auerstaedt reveal the weakness of Prussia? 13. How did Napoleon deal with Poland? 14. In what way does this seem to have been a blunder? 15. How was Prussia reorganized?

CHAPTER VI. NAPOLEON. (3.)

1. Why is it difficult to estimate fairly plans of Napoleon which seem unwise? 2. How long did Europe believe in the invincibility of Napoleon? 3. What may be said of England's view that she saved Europe from Napoleon? 4. What points does our author make regarding Wellington's campaign in Spain? 5. How did the Spanish in the Peninsular War dig their own grave? 6. Why did Austria declare war upon Napoleon at this time. 7. Describe the three sections of this campaign. 8. Compare Napoleon's attitude toward human life with that of other European sovereigns at this time. 9. Who was Metternich? 10. How was the sinister influence of the Hapsburgs borne out by the experience of Napoleon? 11. What can be said of Napoleon's oriental dream? 12. What principles of strategy did Napoleon consciously violate in going to Russia? 13. Why was Russia not worth having at this time? 14. What possibilities did Turkey present?

CHAPTER VII. NAPOLEON. (4.)

1. Why were the sovereigns insincere in their claim to be

liberating Europe by destroying Napoleon? 2. What countries stood together against him? Were they naturally homogeneous? 3. What two influences resulted in his fall? 4. Why was Austria's attitude toward Napoleon short sighted? 5. Why was Russia's attitude more statesmanlike? 6. What was Prussia's position at this time? 7. How did Napoleon's resources in 1813 compare with those of his enemies? 8. What strange error did he make at this time? 9. Describe the campaign around Dresden. 10. How were his attempts at peace negotiations thwarted? 11. What was the Battle of the Nations and its result? 12. Why were Napoleon's campaigns of the Seine barren successes? 13. What influences in France were working against him? 14. What different qualities of the nation came to the front at this time? 15. Illustrate the extraordinary attitude of Napoleon's friends at his abdication. 16. How did Louis XVIII. show his Bourbon characteristics? 17. How does the French Revolution compare with other great revolutions? 18. Describe the return of Napoleon and his attempt to regain the confidence of France. 19. Describe the events of June 16 and 18, 1815. 20. Why is it probable that a victory by Napoleon at Waterloo would not have saved him?

CHAPTER VIII. THE REACTION.

1. With what purpose did the sovereigns of Europe meet at Vienna in 1814? 2. What characteristics were here exhibited by the Prussian Humboldt? 3. At what points were the interests of the Powers clashing? 4. By what decisions did Talleyrand succeed in guiding the congress to the advantage of France? 5. What part did Metternich play? 6. Show how the unwritten legislation of the congress was its worst feature. 8. What deep laid plans did Alexander of Russia attempt to exploit at Aix-la-Chapelle? 9. How were Italy and Spain treated? 10. What was the mental state of the people in Germany and Austria at this time? 11. Describe the Greek revolt in 1829. 12. What relation do we find in Europe between political events and intellectual movements? 13. How may "classical literature" be defined? 14. How did the Romantic movement in Europe differ in general from the classical ideal? 15. Illustrate this in the case of the poetry of this time. 16. How does this same condition apply to music? 17. Illustrate it in the case of Chopin. 18. How was the Romantic movement felt in philosophy? 19. What admirable results did it accomplish in historical research? 20. What great French novelist arose at this time? 21. In what does his greatness consist?

CHAPTER IX. THE REVOLUTIONS.

1. How and why does the attitude of France toward freedom of the press differ from that of England? 2. What caused the revolution of 1830 in France? 3. What great influence did it have upon other parts of Europe? 4. How did the character of Louis-Philippe reveal itself in various events of his reign? 5. Why was the revolution of 1848 the result? 6. What other countries at once rose in revolt? 7. What two reasons make the Hungarian revolution one of first importance? 8. What great qualities had Kosuth? 9. Give the tragic tale of the Hungarian Revolution. Why was it not a complete failure? 10. Why did the revolutions in Austria and Austrian Italy fail? 11. What scientific interest had meanwhile been cultivated in France? 12. What French thinker now turned philosophical thought in a new direction? 13. What were some of the ideas set forth in his philosophy? 14. What men

and countries have been influenced by his thinking? 15. What famous German also contributed much to the study of the exact sciences at this time? 16. Describe the influence of Darwin. 17. What were some of the unwholesome influences of this period of positive science?

CHAPTER X. THE UNITY OF ITALY.

1. What five groups of political events in Europe belong to the years from 1851 to 1871? 2. What great changes in the position of the various powers took place in these years? 3. What striking fact is true of Italian unity in Roman times compared with Italian unity in 1871? 4. How did both Italian character and circumstances work against the unity of the country? 5. What was the policy of Cavour? 6. Why did he send Italian troops to the Crimea? 7. How did the exploit of Orsini aid Cavour's plans? 8. What was Napoleon III.'s idea of the Unity of Italy? 9. Why did Cavour acquiesce in this view? 10. What were the results of Magenta and Solferino? 11. How did Napoleon's seeming treachery affect the Italians? 12. How was the unity of the nation finally accomplished?

CHAPTER XI. THE UNITY OF GERMANY.

1. Why does the Roman ideal of a European nation seem unlikely? 2. Show how the different nations have gradually established themselves on the basis of a common language. 3. Describe the political confusion which existed under the Holy Roman Empire. 4. What degrading social conditions existed in Germany? 5. Show how German unity first grew up through German literature. 6. What was the effect upon Germans of the disasters of 1805-7? 7. What peculiar national conditions have always existed under the Hapsburgs? 8. Show how the Silesian Wars of Frederick the Great have had a great influence upon Germany and Austria. 9. Compare Prussia and Austria in 1850 as to their fitness to unite Germany. 10. How did other great men in Germany prepare the way for Bismarck? 11. What were some of the personal qualities and acquirements which gave Bismarck remarkable command of the political situation? 12. How is his insight into conditions shown in his plans for German unity? 13. Against what adversaries did he have to contend? 14. What two fine qualities are noteworthy in his character? 15. Describe the war with Denmark and show how it contributed to his plans. 16. What was Prussia's attitude to him at this time? 17. How was the incompetence of Austria shown in the war of 1866?

CHAPTER XII. THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

1. What criticisms have been made upon Bismarck for bringing on the Franco-German war? 2. By what considerations was he prompted? 3. What was the condition of the French army at this time? 4. Why was Napoleon III. unable to cope with the situation? 5. How did France attempt to bring on a war? 6. What can be said of Bismarck's coöperation in this attempt? 7. How did Austria act at this time? 8. What did the war prove as to French generalship? 9. How can this be accounted for? 10. What may be said of Thiers and Gambetta in this crisis? 11. What crushing terms did Bismarck make with France? 12. What was the effect upon Germany.

EPILOGUE.

1. Why has Europe no pretext at present for an international war? 2. Why does Austria survive in spite of internal weaknesses? 3. Compare Europe and America today with respect to homogeneity.

C. L. S. C. COURSE 1908-9

FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EUROPE, by
Emil Reich.

SEEN IN GERMANY, by Ray Stannard
Baker.

STUDIES IN EUROPEAN LITERATURE.
MAN AND THE EARTH, by Nathaniel
Southgate Shaler.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1908,
to May 1909, inclusive.

BRIEF MEMORANDA

**Containing
Twenty-Five
Review Questions**

To members: The following pages contain a copy of the list of questions furnished to readers who wish to review the year's course and add seals to their diplomas. They may be used by the reader for his own notes and as a record of his year's work. A duplicate of this pamphlet is mailed at the beginning of the year to all members, subscribers to **THE CHAUTAUQUAN** of course being so designated. It contains these review questions, printed on a good quality of writing paper, to be answered in ink and returned to Chautauqua Institution for credit. The pamphlet also includes the form of application for the annual certificate, and the blank for securing the "Recognized Reading" seal.

In making use of the review questions you are not required to write the answers from memory, but they should be given in your own language.

1. Why should the American Revolution be looked upon as an international event?

.....
.....

2. Why is the French Revolution the most important event of modern history?

.....
.....

3. What was the famous proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick?

.....
.....

4. In what respects was Napoleon a complex character?

.....
.....

20. Why does the play of Faust possess such intense interest?

.....
.....
.....
.....

21. Quote some passage by Maeterlinck which shows how important he considers the life of the spirit.

.....
.....
.....
.....

22. In what locality has Sudermann placed the scenes of most of his novels?

.....
.....

23. In what different ways is modern man taxing the resources of the earth?

.....
.....
.....
.....

24. What are the different kinds of solar energy available for man?

.....
.....

25. What four great valleys in the United States especially lend themselves to irrigation?

.....
.....
.....

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WHITE SEAL MEMORANDA

**Containing
Seventy-Five
Review Questions**

Foundations of Modern Europe

1. What was the true secret of American opposition to Great Britain?

.....

.....

.....

2. Show the importance of the struggle off Cape Henry.

.....

.....

.....

.....

3. What different forms did the French Revolution assume in France and in Germany?

.....

.....

.....

4. What remarkable event took place on August 4, 1789?

.....

.....

5. How can "The Terror" be explained?

.....

.....

.....

.....

21. Why did he refuse to humiliate Austria unnecessarily in the war of 1866?
-
-

22. What criticisms have been made upon Bismarck for bringing on the Franco-German war?
-
-

23. What important contributions to civilization are made by the diversity of European peoples?
-
-

Seen in Germany

24. Mention some of the common things in Germany which are owned by the government.
-
-

25. What are some of the striking qualities of the Kaiser's character?
-
-

26. How does the German type of soldier differ from his English and American counterparts?
-
-

27. Why is it probable that no civilized workman in the world would change places with the German workman?
-
-

28. How has military service affected the German working-man?
-
-

29. For what achievements is Professor Haeckel distinguished?

.....
.....

30. What varied qualities has he shown in his long life?

.....
.....

31. What is the purpose of the Reichsanstalt?

.....
.....

32. How does it render service to practical mechanics?

.....
.....

33. What two great industries have been promoted by Dr. Abbe?

.....
.....

34. How is the best quality of work insured in each?

.....
.....

35. What are some of Germany's laws relating to ship building?

.....
.....

36. What progressive methods may be observed in the German schools?

.....
.....
.....

54. Why is Goethe considered the master of poets?

.....

.....

.....

55. Why is the second part of Faust especially difficult to understand?

.....

.....

56. Quote the lines which set forth Faust's salvation.

.....

.....

57. What remarkable qualities has Heine's "Book of Songs?"

.....

.....

58. How have Maeterlinck's later works shown a finer philosophy of life than did his earlier ones?

.....

.....

59. Why does "The Sunken Bell" seem something more than a simple folk tale?

.....

.....

.....

60. What noble thought do you feel underlies the play?

.....

.....

61. How was Sudermann influenced by the ethics of Nietzsche?

.....

.....

.....

.....

62. How was Ibsen influenced by the events of 1870 in Europe?

.....
.....
.....

63. What effect had "The Pillars of Society" and other plays upon the public?

.....
.....
.....

64. How have his plays set up a new standard for the theater?

.....
.....
.....
.....

Man and the Earth

65. Why is man likely to remain upon the earth for a long time?

.....
.....
.....

66. What possibilities can we foresee in the use of wind?

.....
.....

67. What difficulties make an "aluminum age" likely to be very far in the future?

.....
.....

68. What increase in agricultural resources due to irrigation is likely to be brought about within the next century?

.....

69. In what way may we be able in future to win land from the waters?

.....

.....

70. State some striking fact regarding the "problem of the Nile."

.....

.....

71. How has man recklessly destroyed much soil that might be of use to him?

.....

.....

72. Mention some of the resources of the sea which may be extended in the future.

.....

.....

73. How is future man likely to become of a higher grade physically?

.....

.....

74. What would probably happen if a comet struck the earth?

.....

.....

75. What much-needed change in our methods of teaching science must come in the future?

.....

.....

.....

A Short Course in Esperanto

I. Vocabulary--Grammar.

Esperanto may be compared to chess. Anyone can learn the moves of the game in half an hour, but knowing the moves does not make a chess player. Still, a great deal of enjoyment may be derived from the practice of the game even in the very early stages, and thus it is with Esperanto. You can learn Esperanto grammar in half an hour; that does not make you an Esperantist, but you can begin to read and to write at once and obtain a great deal of enjoyment while perfecting yourself until you can meet another Esperantist and sustain a conversation with him.

VOCABULARY.

A
a t. of adj. (p. 1)
abot' abbot
abot' bee
abf fr [(journal)
abon' subscribe
acer' maple
acid' acid, sour
abot' buy
ad' d. duration. (6)
adaiu' good-bye
admir' admire
admon' admonish
ador' adore
adult' to commit
ad' air [adultery
afabl' affable, kind
afekt' to affect
afar' affair, business matter
afrank' frank
ag' act [letter
agt' eagle
agrd' tune (instr.)
agrabl' agreeable
ag' age
ajl' garlic
ajm' ever; his who
his ajm' whoever
aj' d. concrete
ideas (p. 6)
akcel' to hasten
akcent' accent [tr.
akcept' accept,
welcome
akolpitr' hawk
akir' acquire
akm' pimple [pany
akompan' accom-
akir' sharp [per
akrid' grass-hop-
aks' axle [man
akut' deliver a wo-
akv' water
al to
alind' lark (bird)
al' other
almonat' at least
almoz' alms
alt' high
altern' alternate
alud' allude
alvenet' match
am' love [(Lucifer)
amas' crowd, mass
ambau' both
ambez' anvil
amof' starch

amik' friend
ampleks' extent
amuz' amuse
am' d. member (p. 3)
anas' duck
angif' eel
angul' corner,
angul' angel (angle)
animo' soul
ankad' also
ankoran' yet, still
ankor' anchor
anonc' announce
anor' goose [of
anstatal' instead
anst'e. of pres. part.
act. (p. 4)
antail' before
antikv' old (hist.)
apart' separate.
adj.
aparten' belong
apenau' scarcely
aper' appear
apog' loan (vb.)
April' April
aprob' approve
apud' near, by
ar' d. collection (6)
arano' spider
arb' tree
ar' bow, fiddle
arde' heron
ardoz' slate
argif' clay
argont' silver
ark' arch, bow
art' art
artifik' cunning
artik' joint [(p. 4)
as e. of pres. tense
as'e. of pr. part. pas.
atand' attack [(4)
atons' attempt
atond' wait, expect
atont' attentive
atont' attest certify
ating' attain, at-
atut' trumpet [rive at
a' or, as . as
either . or
a' hear
August' August
a' listen
autum' autumn
av' grandfather
avar' covetous
avol' hazel nut
aven' oats

aventur' adventure
avert' warn [(for
avid' covet, eager
azen' ass, donkey
azet' nitrogen

B
bahit' chatter
bagatel' trifle
bak' bake
bala' sweep
balano' sway.
swing, (tr.)
balbut' stammer
balda' soon
balen' whale
ban' bathe (tr.)
bant' bow (of ribb.)
bapt' baptize
bar' bar, obstruct
barakt' struggle
barb' beard
barbir' barber
barel' keg, barrel
bask' coat tail
baston' stick
bat' beat
batal' fight
bed' bed (garden)
bedadir' pity, re-
bak' back [gret
bef' beautiful, fine
ben' bless
benk' bench
ber' berry
best' beast, animal
betuf' birch (tree)
beson' seed, want
blon' goods, estate
bler' beer
bind' bind (books)
bird' bird
blank' white
blik' cry (of beasts)
blind' blind
blond' fair (of hair)
blow' blow
blu' blue [riage (x)
bo' d. relat. by mar-
boat' boat
bof' bark (dog's)
bol' boil (intr.)
bon' good
bor' bore (tr.)
bors' shore, bank
border' border, hem
bors' bourse, ex-
bot' boot [change
botel' bottle
bov' ox

brak' arm
bram' bream
branb' branch
brand' brandy
(prod. of still)
brasik' cabbage
brst' shelf
brid' bride
brik' brick
bril' shine (intr.)
brod' embroider
brog' scald
brov' brush
bru' noise
brul' burn (intr.)
brun' brown
brust' chest, breast
brut' brute, cattle
bub' lad, urchin
bud' slaughter
buz' toad
buld' ringlet, curl
bul' clod, ball
bulb' bulb, onion
bulk' roll (bread)
burs' drone (ins.)
burg' citizen
burgov' bud
bus' mouth
butar' butter
butik' shop
buton' button

C
ced' to yield
cejan' cornflower
cef' aim, object
cent' cent (cpin)
cent' hundred
cerb' brain, mind
cert' certain, sure
cerv' deer [ing
ceter' rest, remain-
cypher, nu-
cigar' cigar [meral
cigarette
cyan' swan
cilkon' stork
cim' bug
cinder
ash, cinder
shoe-polish
circumstance
circular
cite, mention
lemon
inch

C

ĉagren' grieve (tr.)
ĉambro' room
ĉan' cock (of a gun)
ĉapo' cap
ĉapelo' hat
ĉapitro' chapter
ĉar for, because
ĉarlatan' charlatan
ĉarm' charm [tan
ĉarmir' hinge
ĉarpent' carpentry
ĉas hunt, chase
ĉast' chaste
ĉe at, with
ĉef' chief
ĉemizo' shirt
ĉeno' chain
ĉeriz' cherry
ĉerko' coffin
ĉerpi' draw (from
 any source)
ĉes' cease, desist
ĉeval' horse
ĉi d. proximity: *tie*
 there, *tie ĉi* here
ĉia every (kind)
ĉiam always
ĉie everywhere, nor
ĉiel' in every man-
 ner, heaven, sky
ĉies everybody's
ĉiŝ' crumple, crease
ĉiŝon' rag
ĉikano' chicanery
ĉio everything, all
ĉion all of it [out
ĉirkau' round, ab-
 out each, every one
ĉiz' chisel, carve
ĉi d. masc. affect.
 diminutives (p. 6)
ĉu whether: asks
 a question

D

da is used instead
 of *de* after words
 expressing
 weight or mea-
 sure: *fundo da*
viando a pound
 of meat
daktilo' date (fruit)
danco' dance
dand' dandy
dangro' danger
dank' thank
dat' date (time)
daŭr' endure, last
de of, from, with
 pass. part. *by*
deŝ' becoming
decembro' December
decido' decide (tr.)
deĉifro' decypher
dediĉo' dedicate
defendo' defend
deĝal' thaw
deĵor' be on duty
dek ten
dekliv' slope

dekstr' right-hand
deklr' be delicious
demando' ask
dens' dense, close
dent' tooth
denuncio' denounce
depend' depend
des the (ju...des)
 the...the)
desegn' design
detalo' detail
detru' destroy
dev' must, *deviĝ*
 compel
deviz' device, motto
dezert' (the) desert
dezir' desire, wish
Di God
diablo' devil

diĉoŝ' debauchery
difekti' to damage
diferenc' differ
difini' define, de-
 scribe
dika' [fine
dik' thick, stout
dikt' dictate
diligent' diligent
dimando' Sunday
dir' say, tell
direkt' direct, steer
dis' d. separ. (p. 5)
diskont' discount
dispon' dispose
disput' dispute
disting' distinguish
distr' distract
diver' divine, guess
divers' various, di-
 verse
dividi' divide [verse
de then, according-
 to
doŝ' sweet [ly
doler' pain, ache
dorm' house
dormaĝ' (it is a) pity
doru' give [sent
dorad' make
dorlot' coddle
dorm' sleep
dorn' thorn
doru' (the) back
dot' dowry
drap' woolen cloth
draŝ' thrash
dres' train (anim.)
drink' drink (in ex-
 cess)
drog' drug
dron' drown, sink
du two
dub' doubt
duk' duke [while
dum' during, while.
dung' hire (servant)

E

e t. of adv. (p. 1)
ebena' even, smooth
ebli' d. possibility (6)
ed d. abstr. idea. (6)
ed even (adv.)
edifi' edify
eduk' educate, rear
edz' husband
efektiv' real, actual

efik' have effect
eg' d. increase (p. 6)
egal' equal
ek' echo
ek d. place allot-
 to (6)
ek d. sudden or
 beginning act (5)
ekz' ex- (who has
 been)
eksciti' excite
ekskurs' trip
eksped' dispatch
ekster' outside
ekstern' crush out
ekstrem' extreme
ekzamen' examine
ekzempl' example
ekzerc' exercise
ekzili' banish
ekzisti' exist (mong
 el out of, from a-
 elephant
elekt' choose [(6)
em' d. propensity
embarras' puzzle
ambusk' ambush
enigm' puzzle (take
 entrepreneur
en' be wearied
envi' envy
er' d. unit (p. 6)
eraro' error, mistake
eripad' hedgehog
ermit' hermit
erpi' harrow
escept' except
eskadro' squadron
esper' hope
esplor' explore
esprim' express
est' be (verb aux.)
estim' esteem
esting' extinguish
estr' d. chief (p. 6)
eskef' scaffold
et d. diminution (6)
etaj' story (of
 house)
etendi' extend (tr.)
etern' eternal
eviti' avoid
ezek' pike (fish)

F

fab' bean
fabel' tale, story
fabi' fable
fabrik' factory
facil' easy
faden' thread
fag' beech-tree
fajr' whistle
fajr' file (tool)
fajr' fire
fajr' compartment
fakt' fact
fakturo' invoice
fal' fall [grass
fald' mow, cut
fals' fold
falko' falcon
fals' falsify
fam' fame, rumour

familj' family
fand' cast, melt
fantomo' ghost
far do, make
faring' pharynx
farm' take on lease
farb' be (well or un-
 farun' flour [well]
fask' bundle
fast' fast (vb.)
faski' jaws, gully
favore' favour
fazan' pheasant
ferv' fever
februaro' February
fed' loam, sediment
feli' fairy
feli' hide, fleece
feli' happy, lucky
feli' felt
femur' thigh
fend' split, five (tr.)
fenestro' window
fer' iron
ferlek' deck (ship)
ferm' shut, close
ferver' zeal
fest' festival
festen' banquet
fianco' betrothed
fibr' fibre
fidi' to rely upon
fidel' faithful
fier' proud
fig' fig. [present
figur' image, re-
 sult
fil' son
filik' fern
fin' end, finish (tr.)
finger' finger
firni' firm
fiŝ' fish
flam' flame
flank' side, flank
flar' smell (tr.)
flati' flutter
flav' yellow
flag' mare (the
flado' bend [nick
flak' patch
flirt' flirt, flirt
flak' flakes
flor' flower
flus' raft
flu' flow
flug' fly (vb.)
fluido' fluid
flut' flute
flov' fair (subst.)
foj' time (threetimes
 foj' hay [etc.]
foŝ' seal (animal)
foŝ' leaf, sheet
fond' found, start
font' spring, fount
fontano' fountain
for forth out, away
forget' forget
forĝ' forge, smithy
fork' fork
form' shape
formik' ant
form' stove, furnace
fort' strength

fortik strong (to
for dig (resist)
foŝt post, stake
frag strawberry
frag spawn
frak dress coat
frakas shatter
frakaseŝ ash (son
frakaseŝ frama-
frank raspberry
frank-aŭ sweets,
dainties

frang fringe
frap hit, strike
frat brother
frat bachelor
frand foreign
franz crazy, mad
frat fresh new
frigon rogue
friz dress (hair)
frum cheese
frost frost
frot rub
fru early
frugles rook
frukt fruit
frunt forehead
ftiz phthisis
fulg soot
fulm lightning
fum smoke
fund bottom [ation
fundament foundation
funer funeral
funel funnel
fung mushroom
funt pound
fure forage
furor rage
fud bungle
fut foot (measure)

Q

gal gray, merry
gaj gain, earn
gal fall
galeo rubber-shoe
gama gaiter
gant gloves [tee
garant guaran-
garb sheaf, shock
gard guard [gle
garga rinse, gar-
gas gas
gant guest
gazet newspaper
ga d. both sexes (s)
general general
(military)

gent tribe
geni knee
gest gesture
glac ice
glad to iron
glan accord
glas glass, tumbler
glat smooth
glav sword
glit glide, slide
glob globe
glor glory

glu glue
glut swallow (vb.)
gorŝ throat
grac graceful
grad degree
graf cart, count
grajn a grain, pip
grand great, tall
gras fat
grat scratch [late
gratul congratu-
grav important
graved pregnant
gravi engrave
gras grain, corn
grif cruel
grifal slatepencil
grif cricket (insect)
grin to grate
griz grey (intr.)
gros gooseberry
gru crane (bird)
grup group
gudr tar [aga
gum gum, mucil-
gurd barrel organ
gust taste
gut drop, drip
gubern-istino go-
vernace [itary
guard guard (mil-
gvid to guide

G

garden garden
gom groan
gen incommode
general general
gentil polite [adj.
germ germ
gi it
gih hump
gira giraffe
gie until, as far as
gof joy, glad
gu enjoy
guet exact, right

H

ha ah
hail hail
hak to chop [ball
hak great room,
halad bad exhalation
halt stop (intr.)
har hair
hard harden
haring herring
harp harp (less)
hask skin, (hair-
hav have [bour
haven port, har-
heder ivy
hejm home
hejt heat (vb.)
hej clear, glaring
help help
hepat liver
herb grass
hered inherit

heru here
hered yesterday
hiperit feign
hirus leech (bird)
hirus swallow
histris porcupine
ho! oh!
hodiaŭ to-day
hok book
hoo man
honest honest
honor honour
hont shame
hor hour
horde barley
horlog clock, watch
host sacred host
huf hoof
humil humble
humor humour
hund dog [temper

H

hase chaos
hemf chemical
himar chimera
holer cholera
hor chorus, choir

I

I t. of infinitive (4)
ia some (any) kind
ial for some (any)
cause, reason
iam at some (any)
time, ever, once
id d. descend of (6)
ide idea
ie some-anywhere
iel some-anyhow
ies some-anyone's
ig d. causing to be
(p. 6)
ik d. becoming (6)

W d. instrument (6)
in they, them
illuminate
imag imagine
imit imitate
imperi empire
impalik entangle
impre/impression
falt influence
in d. feminines (6)
inok provoke, in-
cite, tease
ind d. worthy of (6)
indign indignant
induk to be indul-
gent child [gent
infekt infect
infer hell
influ influence
ing d. holder (p. 6)
inolat initiate
ink ink
inklin inclined to
insekt insect
insekt ensnare
instig instigate
instru teach

inest inland
inest insult, abuse
int past part. act.
intense intend (4)
inter between,
among
intense interest
interr inner, inside
intest intestine
itrig to plot
invit invite
le some, anything
lem a little, some,
le go (rather
le d. past tense (4)
let d. profess (6)
let d. past part. p. (4)
le some, anyone
leat isolate

J

J t. of the plural (4)
ja in fact
jak jacket
jam already
januar January
jar year
ja indefinite pre-
position (4)
jen behold! lo!
jea yes
ju-see the...the
jug yoke
jugand walnut
jug judge
juk itch
jul July
jun young
jung to couple,
harness
jun June
jup petticoat, skirt
just just, righteous
juvel jewel

J

jakur jealous
jaid Thursday
jet throw
jong juggle
jur swear [mom't
jus just, at the very

K

kap rap
kad frame
kaduk frail
kaf coffee
kag cage
kahet dutch tile
kan and [ered book
kaner paper cov-
kaner cabin, hut
kan corn (on foot)
kaldren boiler
kales carriage
kalik chalice, cup
kalk lime
kalkur heel
kalun reckon
kaleen pants
kalumni slander

pin/ pine-tree
 pinĉ/ pinch
 plant/ pla
 pint/ pointed
 pip/ pipe (tobacco)
 pipr/ pepper
 pir/ pear
 pirŝt/ gravel
 pist/ to pound
 pir/ pea [crush
 place/ public square
 plad/ please
 plad/ plate
 plafon/ ceiling
 planer/ sole (of the
 plank/ floor [foot]
 plant/ plant (vb.)
 plat/ flat, plain
 plaud/ splash, clap
 plej/ most (p. 3)
 plekt/ weave, plait
 plen/ full
 plend/ complain
 pler/ tray
 plezur/ pleasure
 pli/ more
 plor/ mourn, weep
 plu/ further, longer
 plug/ plough
 plum/ pen
 plumb/ lead (metal)
 pluv/ rain
 po apoco, at rate of
 pokal/ cup, goblet
 polio/ police
 poligon/ buckwheat
 polur/ polish
 pokus/ pole
 polv/ dust
 pom/ apple
 ponard/ dagger
 pont/ bridge
 popl/ poplar-tree
 popol/ people
 por/ for, for benefit
 pord/ door [of
 pork/ hog, pig
 port/ wear, carry
 posed/ possess
 post/ after, behind
 posten/ station (mil)
 postul/ require, de-
 post/ pocket [mand
 post/ post, mail
 potens/ mighty
 pov/ be able, can
 pr' av/ great
 grandfather
 prav/ right (adj.)
 precip/ chiefly
 preciz/ precise
 predik/ preach
 prefer/ prefer
 prag/ pray
 prem/ press
 premi/ prize
 pren/ take
 pres/ print (vb.)
 prestab/ almost
 pret/ ready [prep.)
 preter/ beyond
 pres/ price
 prezent/ to present

princip/ concerning, ab-
 stris/ prince [out
 princip/ principle
 printemp/ spring
 privat/ private (time)
 pro/ owing to, for
 the sake of
 procent/ interest
 proces/ lawsuit
 produkt/ produce
 profund/ deep
 prokrast/ to delay
 proksim/ near
 promen/ to walk
 promes/ promise
 propon/ propose
 propr/ (one's) own
 prosper/ succeed
 prov/ try [thrive
 proviz/ provide
 pruĵn/ hoar (frost)
 prun/ plum
 prunt/ to lend
 pruv/ to prove
 pugn/ fist
 pul/ flea
 pulm/ lung
 pulv/ gunpowder
 pulver/ powder
 pump/ to pump
 pun/ punish
 punkt/ point
 punk/ lace
 pur/ doll
 pur/ pure
 pus/ pus, matter
 pus/ pus
 put/ wall (subst.)
 putr/ to rot

R

rab/ rob [count
 rabat/ rebate, dis-
 raben/ rabbi
 rabet/ to plane
 rad/ wheel
 rad/ beam, ray
 radik/ root
 rafan/ horseradish
 rafin/ refine
 rajd/ to ride (on
 horseback) [rity
 rajt/ right, autho
 rakont/ relate
 rang/ cr. el
 ran/ frog
 ranc/ rancid
 rand/ edge, margin
 rang/ rank, grade
 rap/ long radish
 rapid/ quick, rapid
 raport/ report
 rast/ to rake
 rat/ rat
 radik/ hoarse
 radu/ caterpillar
 rav/ ravish, delight
 raz/ shave
 re d. again, back(s)
 redaktor/ editorial
 office
 reg/ rule, govern
 regal/ regale
 regn/ State, realm

regu/ rule
 reg/ king, reign
 rekompens/ reward
 rek/ straight
 ref/ rail
 rem/ to row [chair
 rembar/ to stuff,
 rampar/ bulwark
 ren/ kidney
 renkont/ meet
 renvers/ upset
 respond/ reply
 rest/ remain [rant
 restorac/ restaur-
 rest/ not
 rev/ dream (awake)
 rezultat/ result
 rib/ currant
 ribel/ to rebel
 rice/ obtain, get,
 rid/ rich [receive
 rid/ laugh
 rifug/ take refuge
 rifuz/ to refuse
 rigard/ look at
 rig/ bolt
 riket/ reap
 rilat/ relate to, con-
 rim/ rhyme [corn
 rimark/ to notice
 rimed/ means
 rimen/ strap
 ring/ ring (subst.)
 rip/ rib
 ripet/ repeat
 ripoz/ repose, rest
 riproch/ reproach
 river/ river
 riz/ rice
 rod/ roadstead
 romp/ break
 rond/ round, circle
 ronk/ to snore
 roe/ dew
 roet/ roast (anim.)
 rostr/ trunk (of
 rok/ company (mil.)
 ros/ rose
 rub/ rubbish
 ruben/ ribbon
 ruben/ ruby
 rug/ rod
 ruĝ/ eructate
 rul/ roll (tr.)
 rust/ rust (tr.)
 ruz/ trick, ruse

S

sabat/ Saturday
 sab/ sand
 sag/ arrow
 sag/ wise
 sak/ sack
 sal/ salt
 salat/ salad
 salajr/ salary
 salik/ willow
 salm/ salmon
 salt/ leap, jump
 salut/ salute, greet
 sam/ same
 san/ health

sang/ blood
 sankt/ holy
 sap/ soap
 sark/ to weep
 sat/ satiated
 sauc/ sauce
 sav/ save [tally)
 sc/ know (men-
 scienc/ science
 scur/ squirrel
 se/ if
 seb/ grease, fat
 sed/ but
 seg/ saw
 seg/ seat, chair
 sek/ dry
 sekul/ rye
 sekul/ dissect
 sekul/ sex
 sekul/ follow
 sek/ saddle
 sekul/ sow
 semajn/ week
 sen/ without
 sene/ sense
 send/ send
 sent/ feel, perceive
 sep/ seven [ber
 September/ Septem-
 serch/ search
 serf/ series
 serioz/ serious
 serur/ lock, (subst.)
 serv/ serve
 ses/ six
 sezon/ season
 si him-, her-, it-,
 one-self, them-
 selves (reflex.)
 sili/ to hiss
 sit/ sit
 sieg/ besiege
 sigel/ seal (vb.)
 sign/ sign, token
 signif/ signify
 silab/ syllable, sil-
 ab/ to spell
 silent/ to be silent
 silik/ flint
 silk/ silk
 siml/ monkey
 simil/ like, similar
 simpl/ simple
 singult/ hiccup
 sinjor/ Sir, Mr.
 sitel/ bucket
 situac/ situation
 skal/ scale [blade
 skapel/ shoulder-
 skarab/ beetle
 skatol/ small box
 skarn/ to fence
 skiz/ to sketch
 sklav/ slave
 skrib/ write
 skur/ shake
 skulpt/ sculpture
 skvam/ scale (fish)
 smerald/ emerald
 sober/ sober
 societ/ society
 self/ thirst
 self/ threshold

sol only, alone
soldat soldier
solea solemn
solvi loosen, solve
somera summer
soni sound (subst.)
soni dream
sonori give out a sound (as a bell)
sopir long for
sori absorb
sori witchcraft
sorigi wild, sav-
sori fate, lot [age
spaci space
speci kind, species
spekul mirror
sperti experience
spesi elspesi dis-
burse, *en spesi*
receive (money)
spico spice
spiko ear (of corn)
spino spine
spino spinach
spiri breathe
spiriti spirit, mind
spiti in defiance (of)
spungi sponge
spiri wit
spusi spusi
spusi expectorate
stabi staff (mil.)
stacio station
stabi stable, stall
stampi stamp
stani tin [mark
standardi flag
stangi pole
stari stand
stati state, condi-
stati stitch [tieu
steli star
sterki manure
sterni stretch out;
-i/a prostrate [tle
storti (death)rat-
stomaki stomach
strabi squint
strangi strange
strati street
streti stretch
streaki streak, line
stri stripe, wide
strigi owl [streak
struti ostrich
stupi tow
sturni startling
subi under, beneath
subiti sudden
suci suck
sudi south
sufi suffer
sufici sufficient
sufoki suffocate
suk sap, juice [(tr.)
sukoen amber
sukoen have suc-
suker sugar (coca)
sufur sulphur
suki wrinkle
sun sun
sup soup
super over, above

super suppose
supi upper (adj.)
sur upi, on
suri dead
surtut overcoat
suti arrange mat-
rimony
suti to swoon
suti swing (tr.)

Ŝ

ŝaf sheep
ŝajni seem
ŝaki chess
ŝanosi shake (tr.)
ŝangi change (tr.)
ŝargi load (a gun)
ŝargi load, burden
ŝati to prize, like
ŝanosi foam, spray
ŝafi shell, peel, rind
ŝaki brace (trous.)
ŝori joke
ŝi she, her
ŝafi shield
ŝafi get mouldy
ŝindi shingle
ŝinki ham
ŝipi ship
ŝiri tear, rend
ŝirmi shelter
ŝimi mud
ŝosi lock, fasten
ŝosari hearty kiss
ŝanki smear, anoint
ŝurati string
ŝosi push forward
ŝoseli shovel
ŝpari be sparing
ŝpini spin
ŝpasi sprinkle
ŝranki cupboard
ŝraŝi screw
ŝtali steel
ŝtali State
ŝtapi log of wood
ŝtoli steal
ŝtosi stuff, tissue
ŝtoni stone
ŝtosi stop up
ŝtrumpi stocking
ŝtusi step
ŝu shoe
ŝudi owe
ŝuti shoulder
ŝuti shoot out (corn)
ŝusi swell [ac.
ŝuti perspire

T

takaki tobacco
tabeli list
tabeli table
tabeli plank, board
tagi day
takori tailor
takati estimate

taki waist
takii mole (animal)
tamburi drum
tamen however
tapeti tapestry
tapeti carpet
tasi cup (tea)
tasi be fit for
tavel layer
te tea
tedi tedious
tagi cover (furni-
ture, &c.)
tagi root
tavi weave
teli plate
tangi time [(anat
temple
tavi hold, grasp
tendi tent
tanti tempt, try
teri earth
tarni sneeze
terori terror
testi tortoise
teri grouse
tia such a
tia therefore
tiam then
tie there
teli thus, so
tiki tickle
tini lime-tree
tini fear
tini moth [es
tini clink of glass-
tie that (thing)
tioni so much
tiri draw, pull
titi title
tiu that
tini linen
teli tolerate
tombi tomb, grave
tendi clip, shear
tendi thunder
tendi wind, twist
torti peat
torni turn (lathe)
torneti knapsack
torti tart
tra through
trabi beam (of wood)
traduki translate
trafi hit, reach
traki feature
traki transact
trandi cut
trankvili quiet
trane across
tre very
trami tremble
trampi to dip
treni drag, trail
trazori treasure
tri three
trinki drink
tritik wheat
tre too (much)
trompi deceive
trovari side-walk
trovi find
tru hole
trudi force upon

trunki trunk, stem
tubi tube
tuburi bulb
tuti tuft
tuti immediately
tuti cloth, kerchief
turi tower
turi thrush
turi torment
turi town (v.a.)
tusi cough
tusi touch
tuti whole, quite

U

u e. imperative (4)
uf d. containing (?)
uf d. remarkable
for (p. 7)
unindef. suffix (7)
unindef. navel
unagi nail (finger)
unu one
urbi town
uri bear (animal)
uriki nettle [(p. 4)
us e. of conditional
utori womb
utiri useful
uzi use

V

vagi roam
vakati wax
vali valley
valeri be worth
vani vain, needless
vanki cheek
vanti vain, futile
vapori steam
vari to recruit
varioli smallpox
varmi warm
varti nurse (child)
vasti wide, vast
vazi vase
vazi vein
vaki wake, arouse
vafi sail (subst.)
velki fade
veluri velvet
veni come
veni sell
vendredi Friday
veneni poison
veni vengeance
venki conquer
venti wind
ventoli to air
venti belly
veri true
verdi green [birch
vergi rod -i whip,
verk work (liter-
vermi worm [ary)
versi verse
veri pour
veruki wart
vespi wasp
vesperi evening
vesperi bat
vesti to clothe
vesti waistcoat
veti bet, wager

The past participle active is formed by *int*. Ex: *aminta*—having loved; *la skribinto*—the man who has written.

The future participle active is formed by *ont*. Ex: *amonta*—being about to love.

There are three passive participles.

The present participle passive is formed by *at*. Ex: *amata*—being loved.

The past participle passive is formed by *it*. Ex: *amita*—having been loved.

The future participle passive is formed by *ot*. Ex: *amota*—being about to be loved.

All compound tenses, as well as the passive voice, are formed by the verb *esti* (to be) with a participle. Compound tenses are employed only when the simple forms are inadequate. Ex: *mi estas aminta*—I have loved (lit. I am having loved); *vi estis aminta*—you have loved (lit. you were having loved); *mi estus amita*—I should have been loved.

Having read carefully the above grammatical rules a few times, let the beginner translate the following paragraph from Esperanto into English. Each word has been separated into its component parts so that all that remains to be done is to look up each part in the vocabulary and the sense will readily be found.

PAROL-AD-J.

Ge-sinjir-o-j, mi nun dir-os al vi kelk-a-j-n vort-o-j-n esperant-e. Mi kred-as ke vi aŭd-os ke esperant-o est-as tre facil-a kaj bel-son-a lingv-o. Ver-e, ĝi est-as tiel facil-a kaj simpl-a, ke oni tut-e ne hav-as mal-facil-ec-o-n por lern-i ĝi-n. La lern-ant-o-j pov-as ordinar-e kompren-i, leg-i, skrib-i kaj parol-i ĝi-n en tre mal-long-a temp-o. La fakt-o ke esperant-o en-hav-as tre mal-mult-a-j-n, vokal-a-j-n son-o-j-n, kaj ke la vokal-o-j est-as ĉiu-j plen-son-a-j, est-ig-as ĝi-n mult-e pli facil-a ol la ali-a-j lingv-o-j ĉu por aŭd-i, ĉu por el-parol-i.

Mi kred-as ke mal-long-a lern-ad-o est-os sufiĉ-a por vi-n kompren-ig-i, ke la hom-o-j de ĉiu-j land-o-j pov-as inter-parol-i esperant-e sen mal-facil-ec-o.

Mi ne de-ten-os vi-n pli long-e. Fin-ant-e, mi-las-os kun vi du fraz-et-oj-n: unu-e, por la ideal-ist-o-j, kiu-j cel-as unu frat-ec-on inter la popol-o-j de ĉiu lando, la esperant-a-n deviz-o-n "Dum ni spir-as ni esper-as."; due, por la hom-o-j praktik-a-j, la praktik-a-n konsil-o-n: "Lern-u esperant-o-n."

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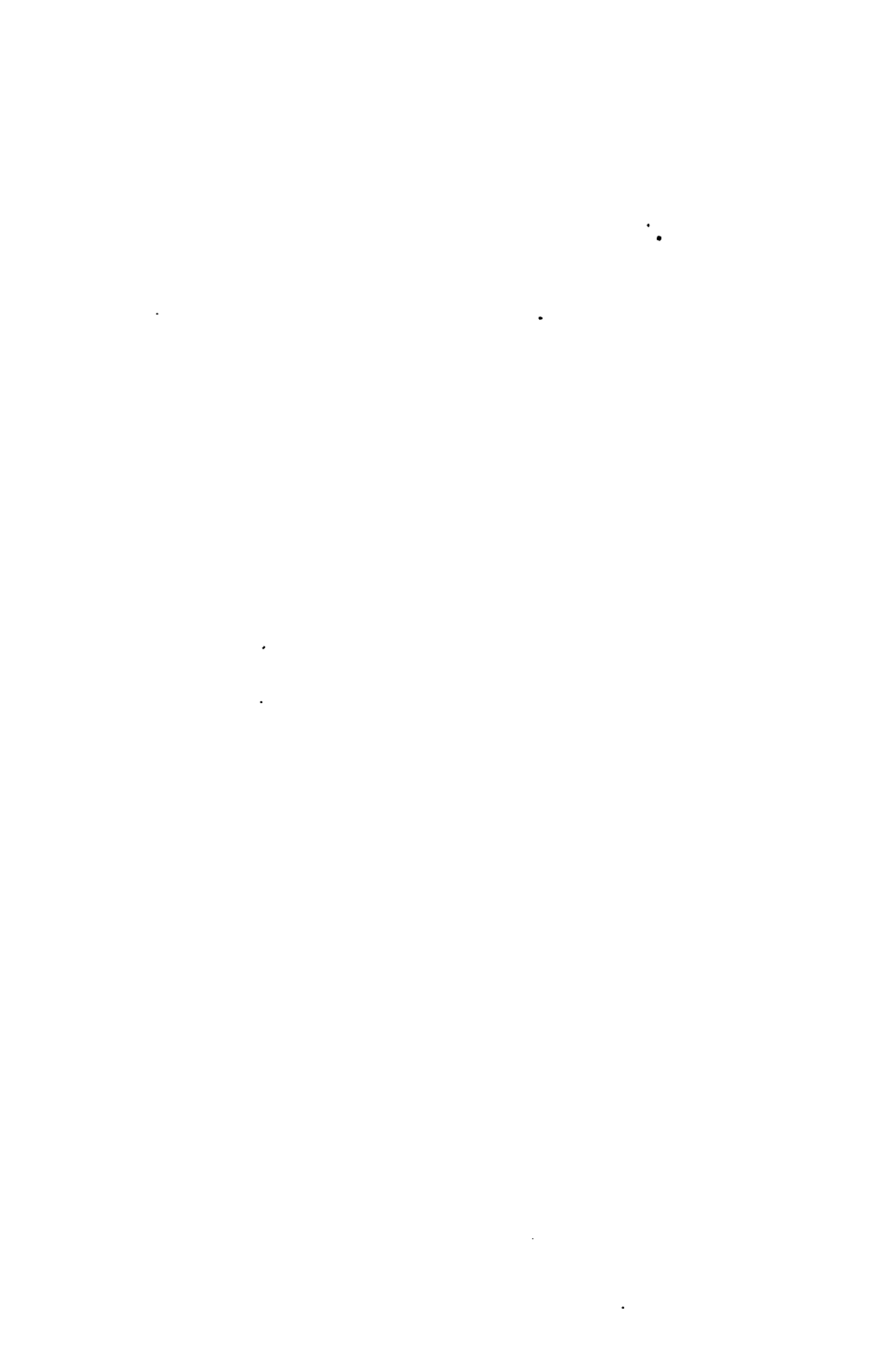
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IT is the general opinion that the political campaign that is now drawing to a close has been quite exceptional, and in the right direction. As had been anticipated, offensive personalities have been avoided and the discussion has been carried on a high plane. The important speeches and writings of the candidates and their respective supporters have dealt with these two questions:

Would the Republican or Democratic ticket most effectually insure the continuation and logical extension of the reforms of the Roosevelt regime?

Aside from the question of policy, is Taft or Bryan the fitter administrator?

One able editor has pointed out that all the presidential tickets this year and all the platforms are "radical." The conservatives are not represented at all, and for them the only question is which of the tickets "threatens" them least. That there can be no halt, no backward step in any direction, must be accepted by them as absolutely certain. The people want economic and political reform, and no party that does not command their confidence or impress them with the sincerity of its pledges has any chance of victory.

In the ranks of the independents there have been interesting developments. The drift is not all one way. Thus the *New York Evening Post*, the *New York Times*, the *Baltimore Sun*, the *Springfield (Mass.) Republican*, and some other independent or independent-Democratic organs have declared for Taft as the more judicious, experienced, "constructive" candidate. The *New York World* is support-

ing Bryan, and the independent organs of the West, like the *Indianapolis News*, the *Chicago Record-Herald*, the *Chicago News*, and others are very friendly in their comments on Mr. Bryan's utterances. On the other hand, papers that are vigorously anti-Bryan admit that he has "grown," that his speeches are more moderate and balanced, his tone dignified, his style clear, effective and persuasive. In the Democratic party there are more signs of harmony than there were in any one of the last three national campaigns, but the Republicans claim that thousands of Democrats will nevertheless vote for Taft.

Of the issues of the campaign, the tariff, the abuses of the injunction, the further regulation of trusts, the guaranteeing of deposits of the banks, and the prevention of undue and improper influences in elections have received the lion's share of attention. Mr. Bryan has definitely revived the issue of a revenue tariff, with merely incidental protection vs. a frankly protected tariff. The Republicans favor revision, but insist on adhering to the protective policy, and they advocate duties high enough to insure high wages to labor and a reasonable profit to the employers. Does the government guarantee profits to any other class of men? asks Mr. Bryan, and other critics of the plank with him; is it right to guarantee profits by law in any case? This question raises an issue as to the object and proper limits of the tariff, but alongside of it is the question which of the parties would revise the schedules as they should be revised in the interest of the consumers and the independent manufacturers.

While the campaign discussion is not lacking in spirit, the managers complain of apathy on the part of the voters, especially as regards contributions. Publicity has made many previous contributors distinctly modest, while corporations, as stated before, are prohibited from contributing by federal law. The expenditures of this campaign will be exceptionally small, but all disinterested citizens agree that this is "a consummation devoutly to be wished."

Primary Laws and Popular Rule

Several States—among them Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, and Iowa—have held direct primary elections lately to nominate governors, federal senators (the latter, of course, in a purely advisory capacity, for the legislatures alone have the legal power to elect them), legislators, and other officers. The laws were new in some instances and the voters had their first “chance” to pass directly on party candidates. The great question in the preliminary campaigns was whether these newly enfranchised voters would use their extended power and influence, or permit the machines, the bosses and the professional office holders to control the nominations as under the old system.

It cannot be said that the results were decisive from this point of view. The interest in the primaries was perceptibly and considerably greater than it had been when merely delegates to nominating conventions were chosen, but it was manifest that everywhere thousands of good citizens qualified to vote failed to appear at the polls. The former indifference, the old habit of letting the politicians and their friends settle the nominations, still proved operative. The friends of direct primaries fear that when the novelty of the system is rubbed off the indifference will tend to become even more marked, and that the machines, with their discipline and organization, will again exercise complete control.

But as to one thing the primaries left no doubt, and that is the desire of the majority for more progressive and more independent statesmanship. In Kansas, Senator Long was defeated by Mr. Bristow, former Assistant Postmaster General and fighter of graft and corruption. In Illinois, Representative Foss nearly defeated Senator Hopkins after a short and limited contest. In Iowa, the people endorsed (the late) Senator Allison for another term in the body in which he had served so long with distinction and ability, but on questions of the day they admittedly preferred the attitude of Gov. Cummins, who ran against the venerable senator. Now that death has removed the latter and closed

a notable career, Iowa Republicans are turning to Mr. Cummins as the logical exponent of their views and sentiments.

On the whole, the summer was a bad one for bosses, spoils cliques and mere partisans. The period has been one of "popular rule," of effective assertion of independence within party lines, and of repudiation of mere labels and machine products.



The Cuban Situation and Prospects

Pursuant to a program formulated last year, provincial and municipal elections have been held throughout Cuba as the first great step to the restoration of native government in the island. These elections passed off quietly, and the American authorities believe that many of the Cubans have really learned to abide by the results of honest contests and legal voting.

There were three parties in the field, the Conservative, the Gomez liberal, and the Zayas liberal. The division of the liberals into two wings or factions enabled the conservatives to capture many offices in cities where they are in a minority. Only about fifty-eight per cent. of the qualified voters went to the polls, however, and it is not clear whether the abstentions were chiefly in the liberal or in the conservative ranks. It is hoped, for the sake of the future of Cuban independence and stability, that at the presidential election, announced for next December but likely to be advanced, a full vote will be cast. A full vote will not only mean that the business and wealthy elements are taking a proper interest in government and exercising their share of influence, but also that the decision at the polls will be the decision of a majority of the voters instead of a minority.

One result of the recent election and the conservative victories is the retirement of Zayas as a candidate for the presidency and the practical consolidation of the two liberal factions. In the event of liberal unity and harmony that party, supposed to control a majority of the votes, will prob-

ably elect its candidate. If the conservatives then accept the verdict and acquiesce in majority rule, the obstacle to the surrender of the whole government to the Cuban officials will be removed.

There are still, it must be admitted, serious doubts in many minds as to the success of the next experiment on Cuban self-government. But nothing, it is apparent, would be gained by further delay at this time. Cuba has been given honest registration laws, proper election machinery and other essentials of honorable and just government. The foundation has been laid for a stable and orderly administration. If Cuba has too many disorderly men who are ready "to take to the woods" on any provocation, real or imaginary, and start insurrections and revolutions, the process of ridding her of these elements through education, severe discipline and stern suppression of lawlessness will be a much longer one than our government would now feel justified in undertaking. Hence independence is to have another trial immediately, and further developments will depend on the conduct of the natives—the workmen, the plantation laborers, the colored citizens, the ex-revolutionists.



Arbitration and Compulsion

The Dominion of Canada has an industrial conciliation and arbitration act which has received the highest praise and commendation from leading men in America and England. It applies only to the field of public utilities—railroads, lighting companies, etc.—but the intention has been to extend it if its operation should be considered as justifying extension to other fields. The act is a consolidation of some previous statutes with novel features, the most important of the latter being the provision for a public and authoritative investigation of any industrial controversy, and the prohibition of a strike or lockout pending the inquiry and the publication of the findings. The system thus differs materially from the compulsory arbitration laws of

Australasia. The right to strike or discharge is not absolutely denied; it is only restricted and suspended for a time. Instead of one court to hear all disputes a special body of conciliators or arbitrators is selected for each dispute. The idea of the act is that discussion, publicity, impartial findings and opportunity for delay and sober action cannot fail to prove a preventive of ruptures and consequent interruptions of industry.

In the recent strike of railroad machinists and other employes—the greatest that Canada has undergone—the act “failed,” apparently. That is, the inquiry and the decision of the board were not acceptable to labor, and some 8,000 men struck as soon as the law permitted them to do so. It does not follow, however, that an act is a failure if it does not completely prevent the evil it is aimed at. The Canadian system of conciliation and arbitration, with its temporary prohibition of strikes and lockouts, will doubtless be judged by the experience of a number of years, and of many disputes.

Meantime reports from New Zealand indicate that compulsory arbitration is far from giving satisfaction or “preventing strikes.” The government, the parliamentary opposition, the labor leaders, the newspapers seem to agree that the arbitration law has failed. Several strikes have taken place, in spite of fines and threats of prosecution, and neither employers or employes are of the opinion that these strikes were exceptional. More friction is feared, and something must be done if New Zealand is to be in reality what many have admiringly called it “a country without strikes.”

Exactly what changes the system needs is a matter upon which opinions differ. The labor leaders say that more conciliation and less compulsion is the remedy. They complain of the unfairness of the arbitral court and its ignorance of industrial questions and conditions. But the government thinks that more compulsion is needed, rather than less, and proposes heavier fines for striking or locking out men and more effective means of collecting the fines. It is

willing to provide for boards of conciliation with members from the industries affected by the disputes, but it has no faith in moral means alone. Its new bill is denounced by labor as the most tyrannical ever proposed in an Anglo-Saxon parliament. Some amendments will probably be adopted, but not in the teeth of opposition from organized labor.



The British Old-Age Pension Act

The parliament of the United Kingdom passed the Asquith old-age pensions bill, and it is now law. All agree that it is one of the most momentous pieces of legislation that the spirit of the age and the great movement for social reform have brought forth. It is true that Australia, New Zealand, and Denmark have had old-age pension systems for some years, and the act is therefore not "unprecedented." But England is a conservative country, with a hereditary upper house, a landed aristocracy and an industrial class that still believes very strongly in the "let alone" or individualistic philosophy of government. For England the measure is distinctly radical, and so it is regarded by many conservatives and independents.

Yet it passed the Commons without serious opposition, the Tories arguing but not voting against it, and the Lords by a considerable majority. In the upper house it was subjected to very severe criticism, and an attempt was made to amend it materially and limit its duration to seven years. But the Commons rejected all amendments originating in the Lords as a breach of privilege, taking the ground that measures involving the expenditure of money by the national treasury cannot be either proposed or changed in the upper house. The Lords, though denying this view of their powers, abandoned their position on the pensions bill as a matter of policy and accepted it in the form in which the liberal ministry and commons wished it carried into effect.

The pensionable age is fixed at 70, and the amount the

pensioner will receive is \$1.25 a week. Paupers and criminals are disqualified, and it is estimated that the cost of the system even as now limited will be about \$30,000,000 a year, at least. No one doubts that in the course of time the amount of the pension bill will be raised and the pensionable age lowered to 65. The Tories have for years been committed to a general pension scheme, but they contend that in order to provide means for it the fiscal system must be changed, duties must be imposed on many classes of products and the basis of taxation broadened considerably. The Liberals insist that free trade finance is not incompatible with old-age pensions and other social reforms, and they are to endeavor to demonstrate this during the remainder of their term of office. It is generally felt that this question of "finding money" for social reform will be the chief issue in the next general election in Great Britain. The Tories will take as advanced a position as the Liberals on all matters that are of vital importance to labor and to the masses of the "plain people."



Turkey as a Constitutional State

The world has been amazed and puzzled by the developments in Turkey during the past several weeks. They are as extraordinary, as dramatic and as inspiring withal as any recorded by history. Who would have predicted, and who would have believed, a few months ago the things that have come to pass in so short a period? Turkey—a constitutional state; Turkey with a representative assembly, a charter of liberties, equality of citizens before the law, a free press, a reform ministry of statesmen, of men of character and progressive spirit!

When the news that the sultan had granted his subjects a constitution—or, rather, had revived the "suspended" constitution of 1876—was first given to the world it was received with deep skepticism. "Another strategem by the crafty sultan," was the general comment. On the other hand,

many declared that even if the sultan was sincere in his step, nothing would come of it, since the people were neither ready for nor interested in constitutional government. Others feared civil war, massacre, revolt, such as followed the granting of a constitution to Russia.

But the event so far has justified the hopeful and agreeably disappointed the pessimistic and doubtful. It has been made clear, to begin with, that the sultan yielded because he found himself at his wit's end and saw no alternative. The Young Turk movement had taken hold of all the liberal-minded people; the unpaid and oppressed troops had made common cause with the reformers and constitutionalists; even the trusted Albanians, the loyal subjects of the sultan, had shown signs of unrest and discontent. Moreover, the Macedonian problem was about to be reopened; the powers were pressing for reforms and the acceptance by the porte of a new program; the Christian population was in danger, and another conflict meant intervention. All of these combined to discredit the old regime, and the sultan had to choose between loss of his European provinces, disorder and mutiny on the one hand, and constitutional reforms on the other. He did not, it would seem, hesitate long. He granted even more than the Young Turks and other progressives had dared to hope for in the immediate future. And his choice was certainly a wise one.

It brought peace to Turkey. Only slight disturbances and a small mutiny of ultra-loyalist troops followed the surrender. On the whole the various elements of the population have behaved with wonderful self-restraint and tact. The Mohammedans have fraternized with the Christians; Greek, Bulgar, Armenian, Jew, Turk, Albanian—all have welcomed the promised new era and have preserved extraordinary calmness and trust in the beneficence of the change.

The whole western world is eagerly watching Turkey. On the East the effect has also been salutary, for the reaction in Persia seems to have been checked by the astonishing news

from Constantinople. The powers that have been considering further reforms for Macedonia and intending to exert pressure on the porte have decided to give the new regime a chance. It is hoped that the parliament and reform ministry of Turkey will deal with the complex Macedonian problem in a new spirit, and that the population of the province will meet the government half-way in the effort to eliminate violence, oppression, disorder and racial animosity.

It would be idle, of course, to speculate on the future of the Turkish experiment, especially in view of the keen disappointment of liberalism in more advanced Russia. It is to be noted, however, that some sober-minded writers who know Turkey assure the west that she is more "ripe" for constitutionalism than most of us suppose. Her educated classes, her high-born women, her army and diplomatic service are said to be intelligently in favor of freedom and integrity in public affairs, and many of the races in her population are independent, proud, strong, and fit to govern themselves.

It is interesting to glance at the history of the "revived" constitution. The London *Times* recently set it forth briefly as follows:

On his accession in August, 1876, Abdul Hamid found himself confronted with a situation of the utmost gravity, owing to the state of his European provinces and the interest taken in them by Europe, not to speak of the war with Servia and Montenegro. In the beginning of December, 1876, a European conference was held in his capital to put matters straight. It was an utter failure, and is chiefly remarkable for the attempt which the Sultan made to impress the delegates by appointing the reformer Midhat Pasha Grand Vizier and proclaiming a Constitution. By this proclamation Parliamentary institutions were set up and every sort of liberty conferred on his people. Two months, however, had not elapsed before Abdul Hamid showed the insincerity of his promises by arresting and banishing Midhat Pasha, the author of the Constitution. In the meantime the concentration of Russian troops on the Pruth assumed formidable proportions; the Protocol of London urging Turkey to disarm was received by the Porte; the European Conference in Constantinople, having proved a signal failure, broke up, and with it the Concert of Europe. The elections for the Turkish Parliament, nevertheless, took place throughout the Empire. The old edifice of the Chamber of Deputies, where, on the conclusion of a short-lived peace with Servia, the elected Deputies assembled. On March 19, 1877, the Sultan convoked them to the Palace of Dolma Baghtché and addressed them in a Speech from the Throne, in which, after de-

claring the Parliament open, he reviewed the situation and made profuse promises of liberal reforms and of military and naval reorganization. On the following day the Senators and Deputies took the oath and their seats in the Dar-el-Funun and began to prepare an Address in reply to the Speech from the Throne.

On April 23 Russia declared war, whereupon the Sultan telegraphed to his generals in command on the Danube and in Anatolia a high-sounding proclamation, and on May 24 martial law was proclaimed. A month later the Parliament was abruptly closed, and although it reassembled once more at the end of the year, its independent attitude again alarmed the Sultan, and he took advantage of the arrival of the British fleet for the protection of his capital against Russian advance in order to rid himself once for all of a popular institution for which he no longer had any use. The Parliament was dissolved on February 14, 1878. Even then Abdul Hamid did not venture formally to abrogate the Constitution. It was declared to be "suspended," and suspended it has remained for thirty years.

May the fate of the present experiment be happier. It probably will be, for much has happened in the world in the last thirty years, and all of a character to weaken absolutism and tyranny.





II. Danger Points Around the Globe*

By Victor S. Yarros

THE international political kaleidoscope whirls and changes so unexpectedly that not even the astute specialist in diplomacy is able to foretell today what question will be "acute" and threatening tomorrow. While the unexpected does not always happen in the sphere of international relations, it happens so frequently that he who would discuss possible apples of discord or pending questions pressing for settlement must be cautious and liberal with his "ifs" and other reservations. The recent trouble between Italy and Turkey, which all but led to a naval demonstration by the former in the waters of the latter power was a surprise to the world at large; the Moroccan difficulty which necessitated the calling of the Algeiras Conference (discussed in a previous article) was the result of an impulsive and wholly unforeseen act of the German Emperor. The murder of a missionary or of a diplomatic agent here or there may beget serious complications.

Still, it is a fact that at any given historic stage certain problems may be recognized as vital and "dangerous"—as containing possibilities of conflict and storm. Having shown whereon the European balance rests at this juncture, by means of what alliances and agreements peace and relative security are guaranteed for the time being—it is necessary to inquire next what further understandings and arrange-

*The first article of this series, "The European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World," by Victor S. Yarros, appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN.

ments are necessary to remove the fear of war and render possible the much desired reduction of armaments.

Six years ago, any such inquiry would have elicited the assertion that Korea, Manchuria, India, and European Turkey were the chief danger points, and that would have been true. Today the answer is very different. Korea is practically a Japanese province, and Russia, professing a policy of "sound egotism" (to use the phrase of her minister of foreign affairs) acquiesces in the accomplished fact and hopes for friendly relations with Japan on the basis of the *status quo*. Persia and (indirectly) India are among the "spheres" covered by the Anglo-Russian understanding. Manchuria and European Turkey remain, however, and they are not by any means the only danger points on the political map.

Before dealing with any of these points a few words must be said regarding far more general questions that fall within the same category. Until about a year or two ago it was the fashion in British, French, Russian, and even certain American newspapers to represent Germany as a restless, disturbing, and intriguing enemy of the world's peace. She was supposed to be jealous of England and hostile to the United States. She was accused of secret sympathy with her "Pan-German" imperialists, whose literature advocates the absorption of Holland, the annexation of the German provinces of Austria, and the planting and active cultivation of German colonies in South America. She was supposed to entertain special designs in Brazil, whither tens of thousands of loyal Teutons had emigrated and where they were establishing purely German settlements. Incidentally, Germany was supposed to abhor the Monroe Doctrine and to be looking forward to a decisive clash with the American republic over the latter's claim of "moral suzerainty" in the whole western hemisphere.

Owing to various causes, these suspicions have practically vanished from the minds of thoughtful observers. "Pan-Germanism" has been disavowed by leading diplo-

matic representatives of Emperor Wilhelm and very significant articles undoubtedly of a semi-official character have been contributed by German diplomats to influential reviews to convey assurances of a non-aggressive policy on the part of the imperial government at Berlin. Particularly important was a paper which the late Baron von Speck-Sternburg, German Ambassador to the United States, published in the *North American Review* for March of this year. Its title was "The Truth about German Expansion" and it dealt vigorously with what it called the "fairy tales" that were circulated in some quarters regarding the alleged colonial schemes of the Fatherland. The Ambassador started out by saying:

"In the first place, it is not true that colonial expansion is a necessity for Germany, resulting from its industrial growth. The impetus given to German commerce and German manufactures is to be ascribed far more to the increase in the buying capacity of other nations—England, France, Russia, or America—than to all the German colonies combined. Germany needs no colonies; what she wants is merely free competition on all seas, the open door, and the right to coöperate freely on an equal footing with all other commercial and industrial nations, in opening up new and as yet unopened districts and markets. Hence the principle of the open door is the leading motive of the foreign policy pursued by Germany. It is the red thread that winds itself through the Eastern-Asiatic, the Oriental, and the Moroccan policy of the German Empire."

We cannot, from lack of space, quote at length from the article, but suffice it to say that it undertook to refute the assertion that Germany had any lust for territory that jeopardized either the independence of Holland and Belgium or the Monroe Doctrine.

Another supposed menace to European peace has until lately been discerned in the friction between the two halves of the Dual Kingdom, Austro-Hungary. At one time there was a disposition in Hungary to threaten secession after the manner of Norway in her former union with Sweden. Publicists gravely talked about the certain disintegration of the kingdom upon the death of Francis Joseph and the apprehension was openly expressed that in the event of such disintegration Germany would eagerly embrace the opportunity

and "gobble up" the provinces that have dominant Teutonic majorities. Well-informed writers have called Austro-Hungary the "balance-wheel of Europe" while recognizing that the personality of the aged emperor-king has kept that wheel in place and in proper motion. The consequences of an upheaval in that kingdom these writers have declared to be too appalling to contemplate.

But latterly more cheerful and at the same time more reasonable views have been expressed concerning the situation and prospects of Austro-Hungary. The death of Francis Joseph is no longer dreaded; the stability of the dual kingdom no longer seriously doubted. The concession of adult suffrage to the masses of Austria has made for national unity and national solidarity and Pan-Germanism has suffered a set-back. Hungary, too, has realized apparently that secession would be bad and dangerous from the view-point of her cherished "home rule" and her historic mission in Europe. Separated from Austria she would be a small, weak, insecure power, open to attack unless "neutralized" by the great powers. Her pride, her independence, her vital interest, it is now recognized, demand the maintenance of the union of which she claims to be the more homogenous and the more important half.

The European or American student of "world-politics," if requested to name the points of actual or possible disturbance, would undoubtedly mention "Macedonia" first. Morocco might come next, or the Far East. At any rate, Morocco is entitled to the third place as matters now stand, if not to the second, and the fourth place may be assigned to the Baltic Sea and the Aland Islands, though the last named danger point has been measurably relieved by the recent North Sea and Baltic treaties.

Concerning Macedonia, very grave language has been used by the most sober-minded of statesmen. In pressing certain reforms (presently to be discussed) on the continental powers, Sir Edward Grey, British minister for foreign affairs, has said lately that "Macedonia if it continues to be

neglected by the concert must sooner or later provoke a catastrophe." Chancellor von Buelow of Germany compared the Macedonian situation to "the elements of a conflagration which six great powers were in vain endeavoring to extinguish, since fresh fuel was always being imported from without." What, exactly, is the Macedonian problem?

It would require a volume to state and explain it, but here a few paragraphs must suffice.

As a matter of fact, there is now no such geographical or administrative entity as "Macedonia." The name is given for historical reasons to three provinces in European Turkey—Salonika, Manastir, and Kossova. This territory, bounded by Bulgaria, Albania, and the Aegean Sea, has for several decades been a veritable whirlpool, or rather a storm center, a theater of strife, bloodshed, racial conflicts, massacre, and insurrection. There is no trustworthy official estimate of the population of Macedonia, and private statisticians are widely at variance. However, impartial German investigators give approximately the following estimate:

Turks and Albans.....	628,000
Bulgarians, Serbs and other Slavs.....	2,000,000
Greeks	200,000
Rumans	100,000

These races are at war with one another, religious, political, economic and other motives inspiring their mutual hatreds and fierce contentions. In the words of von Buelow, "the sole or even the chief cause of the evil did not lie in the opposition between the Christians and the Mahommedans, but in the embittered conflicts between the different Christian nationalities, each of which was trying to secure supremacy in Macedonia, and in the event of the abolition of Turkish supremacy as large a share of that territory as possible." The Turks, including the troops stationed in the province to maintain order, oppress and maltreat the Christians, force them to pay tribute, and kill inoffensive men and women. When the brutalities cause popular revolts, the troops commit the most fiendish atrocities in the name of law



The Balkan Peninsula.

and authority. Greek, Bulgarian, and Servian bands constantly invade Macedonia and plunder and kill without mercy in the name of freedom and emancipation. A Servian statesman, in a paper which appeared in a British magazine, wrote as follows about these raids, ravages, and massacres:

"It is evident to everybody that the situation in Macedonia cannot remain much longer such as it is now. It is a disgrace not only to the Balkan nations, who are fighting each other in Macedonia by fire and sword in the sight of Mohammedans, but it is a disgrace to the whole of Christian and civilized Europe, which has for several years already allowed such a scandal to go on without any serious attempt to check it. It is a disgrace that the great powers of Europe coolly and slowly, yes, very slowly indeed, discuss how to improve the finances of Macedonia, looking quietly on the burning of villages and the slaughtering of poor peasants alternately by Bulgarian, Serbian, and Greek."

The only permanent solution of the problem would be found in autonomy for Macedonia under a governor nominated by, or with the consent of, the powers of Europe. But for this the concert of the powers is not ready. Some of them, notably Germany and Austria, do not wish to "imperial the sovereignty of the Sultan" though his sovereignty has been restricted again and again in the last several decades. They fear that the Macedonian population would be provoked to extreme resistance and the flames of war would be kindled not only in the Balkans but in Asia Minor and in India and Egypt. Half measures are therefore advocated at present, and the best observers believe that half measures will not only fail, but beget the very dangers apprehended by the powers.

Macedonian reform has been talked of since the Russo-Turkish War. In 1902 an uprising followed by atrocities on the part of the Turks led to the drawing up of a scheme which the Sultan approved "in principle" and absolutely ignored in practice. In 1903 Russia and Austria, as the agents of Europe as a whole, agreed on what is called the Mürzsteg program, which provided for European command of the Macedonian gendarmerie and for foreign supervision of the collection of the taxes. That program has been applied, but the obstruction of the Turkish officials, coupled

with the inadequacy of the power vested in the foreign agents, robbed it of all its efficacy. The outrages continued, and according to many accounts, about 10,000 murders have been committed in the provinces since 1903.

Further reforms, increased European control, and steps toward partial autonomy are now proposed. Their success is distinctly doubtful and another failure will raise the question of real and complete autonomy. That, in turn, will revive that larger question of the Turk in Europe, of the fate of the provinces of Adrianople and Constantinople. Russia will never abandon the dream of acquiring Constantinople, but will Austria acquiesce in that consummation? And what will be the position of Germany, of England?*

Moreover the interests of Italy and Austria in the Balkans are incompatible and perhaps irreconcilable. In the words of a well-informed writer, "there lies between them an abyss as broad as the Adriatic, for which they are both silently struggling." Italy would like to convert the Adriatic into an "Italian lake" and she regards Albania and the western side of the Balkan peninsula as her future sphere, her estate in reversion. She is building schools and seminaries in Albania to gain adherents among the population. Austria's Adriatic interests and claims in the Balkans arising from her position, her work in Macedonia, her control and administration of Bosnia-Herzegovina, are opposed to Italy's aspirations. Some day there will be a conflict over the Adriatic.

With the Moroccan problem as it now presents itself one must deal in the light of the Algenciras conference and the events that led up to that gathering. In a previous article, those antecedents were briefly set forth. Bearing them in mind, what is to be expected in Morocco? France has been conducting a military campaign in that kingdom

*The sudden revival of the Turkish constitution has resulted in a truce in Macedonia and in a suspension of the reform efforts of the Powers. The Turkish parliament is to have "a chance" to deal honestly with the Macedonian problem. But the difficulties will be great and the result doubtful.



Morocco and Its Relation to the rest of Northern Africa.

incurring losses and sacrifices which cannot be compensated for with money, and her people have been restive and dissatisfied. Germany has been watching French operations in Morocco with undisguised suspicion and jealously fearing "a hostile move"—that is, an attempt on the part of France to establish a protectorate over the country, to occupy the capital or other important cities, and depart from the spirit of the Algieras treaty. The French government has had to give the most unequivocal assurances of its adherence to that treaty. Yet is it no secret that the French want Morocco as a dependency and regard themselves as entitled to it by virtue of their possession of Tunis and Algiers, and it is probable that all the powers except Germany would permit her to proclaim herself the protector and suzerain of Morocco. Germany alone, then, blocks the way and forces on French statesmen a policy of equivocation and cant. When reports are circulated that France intends to denounce the Algieras treaty and take such "independent action" as the new circumstances justify, the government repudiates them—without satisfying either French or German public opinion.

How soon affairs in Morocco may reach a crisis, and whether France is prepared to defy Germany and appeal to the support of England and Russia, it would be rash to say. But the general feeling among impartial observers is that Morocco will remain a "sore spot" (to use a von Bülow phrase) and a source of discord until either the sword or an agreement of some far-reaching kind that shall readjust the relations between Germany and France at all points shall

finally determine the future destiny of Morocco. For even now it is sheer pretence to speak of the ancient Moorish kingdom as an independent and "sovereign state." The only question is whether it shall pass under French control or under international control.*

From Morocco to Manchuria and the Far East is a "far cry" but in studying danger points one is compelled to take even less than forty minutes in putting "a girdle round about the earth." The Far Eastern problem is supposed to have been solved by the Russo-Japanese War and the Portsmouth Treaty. But the better opinion is that only the first battle has been fought in Manchuria. Thomas F. Millard, one of the most impartial and vigorous writers on the Far East, says in his recent book entitled "The New Far East" that far from settling the question, the peace between Russia and China "leaves it in almost as unsettled a state as before hostilities began." He continues :

"All the old elements, with all the old cross purposes and hostilities, still remain, and are now confronted with the problem of assimilating or being assimilated by, this new force (a waking and capable Orient). The settlement is still a matter for the future. . . . "Instead of Russia being in Manchuria, both Russia and Japan are there. Both have agreed to evacuate it is true, but then, Russia has always agreed to evacuate. . . . There is not the slightest alteration of the political status of Manchuria as a result of the war, and the general interests there remain the same as they were before."

Another competent writer, Mr. B. L. Putnam-Weale, has written a book which bears the significant title "The Truce in the Far East." He cannot see that anything has been "settled there." The "truce" he thinks will probably continue until 1915, on account of the alliance between Japan and England, but it will hardly last much longer. For not only was Russia forced to accept a humiliating peace, but, in her view, Japan has not even observed the terms of the peace treaty. To quote Mr. Weale:

*The latest complications in Morocco—the change of Sultans, the duplicity of the victorious usurper, the question of his "recognition," and Germany's surprising haste in advising such recognition—emphasize the extreme delicacy of the Moroccan situation.



Persia and the Russo-Indian Frontier.

"For the time being Russia has accepted certain undeniable facts; but that the general situation can continue indefinitely as it stands at present, she does not for a moment believe. She has abated none of her ambitions; no one need doubt this for a great empire must either advance or perish. She is of opinion that Japan has gone far beyond the stipulations of the Portsmouth treaty in attempting to make Korea virtually a Japanese province. She sees that Japan, by systematizing her railway program at home and on the edge of the Asiatic continent, is taking a leaf out of her own book and is looking far ahead. Russia admits that the diplomatic conquest of Peking will have to be begun all over again and that this has become more difficult than it ever was before. But she does not despair."

Certainly many things have happened since these words were written to corroborate the view taken by Messrs. Weale and Millard. There has been serious friction between Japan and China over questions of railway building in Manchuria, of trade, of the suppression of smuggling. There has also been friction between Japan and the business interests of England and America. It has been alleged that Japan is not observing in good faith the open-door principle in Manchuria; that she is granting rebates on her Manchurian line to her own merchants and rendering it hard for others to compete with them; that she is "treading on everybody's

toes" in the whole "sphere" that the war placed at her disposal. On the other hand Russia, while affirming a thoroughly pacific policy, has decided to double-track her Siberian railroad and also to construct a new "all Russian" line to Vladivostock, avoiding Manchuria entirely and following the Amur River as was originally planned. She realizes that in the event of war with either of her pacific neighbors the Manchurian railroad will be of no use to her, and, besides, China is entitled, by the terms of her railroad agreement with Russia, to take over that line at the end of a period of years (now a little over thirty) on paying the cost of its construction plus the deficits, if any, arising from its operation. The "new China" is expected to take full advantage of this purchase clause, and Russia therefore, is seriously troubled over the future of her Pacific provinces—their defence and development.

Whether we are optimistic or skeptical with reference to China's efforts at regeneration and reconstruction, whether she continues to grow as a modern power or relapses into apathy and stagnation, the future of the Far East, or at any rate of such parts of it as have been coveted by Western nations and regarded as "spheres" of their proper influence, is extremely uncertain. Momentous changes are impending there in any event, and they may not all take place under clear skies and a condition of peace and amity.

The Western powers that are most deeply concerned in the future of the yellow Far East happen also to be the powers interested in what is called the Northern Question—the future control of the Baltic and North Seas. I have adverted in the beginning of this article to the imputation to Germany of a secret desire to annex Holland and Belgium as well as to the sleeping but not dead controversy over the old convention regarding the Aland Islands. In April last, after some delicate negotiations, related agreements were signed for the maintenance of the *status quo* in the regions in question. The Baltic agreement was signed by Russia, Germany, Sweden, and Denmark—the littoral powers—and



The Aland Islands and the Adjacent Countries.

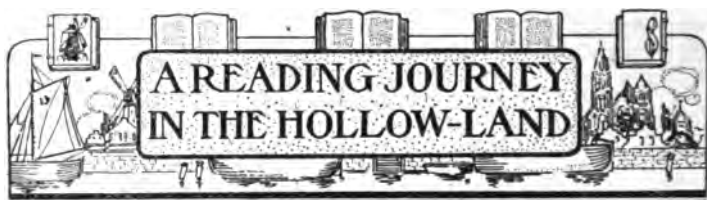
the North Sea agreement by Great Britain, Germany, Denmark, France, Holland, and Sweden. The superficial view of these conventions is that they constitute another guaranty of peace in Europe, and undoubtedly they are reassuring as far as they go. Still, critical writers feel that they have not even temporarily settled the Northern Question. In the first place, Russia's pledge of 1855 not to fortify the Aland Islands, which lie off the southern coast of Finland and "threaten" the Swedish capital, was not incorporated into the Baltic agreement, which means that it is not part of the permanent *status quo* and may be reopened at any time. Russia has denied that she wishes to fortify the islands, but she does not deny that she finds the pledge a galling restriction of her "sovereign" right to do as she pleases on her own territory. A reopening of the question would alarm Sweden and force her to increase her naval and military forces, and England, whose interest in the Baltic is great, would advance objections.

Again, the agreements are vaguely and queerly worded. They provide that if the *status quo* should be threatened, the

signatories should deem it their duty to enter into communication with one another in order to concert measures for its preservation. Such a phrase commits the powers concerned to nothing; in a crisis it would have little value or effect.

Finally, the treaties postpone but do not dispose of the question of the future relations between the two great empires, Russia and Germany, to the small weak states that cut them off, as has been said, from the freedom and opportunities of the sea. Holland and Belgium bar the way of Germany to effective control of the North Sea; Denmark guards the entrance of the Baltic; Norway stands between Russia and the Northeastern Atlantic. How long will the "imprisoned empires" respect the rights of the weak states? What will be the effect of the recent alliances and understandings on the "*status quo*" in the Baltic, the North Sea, the Balkans, the Persian Gulf?

There is, perhaps, no such thing as a "final" solution of any great territorial and international problem. States grow, decline, see other states in the places once occupied by them. Every change of moment unsettles something and brings fresh complications. But as things stand today, we can see what securities the last five years have added to the world's peace, and also what "sore spots" the developments of the period have exposed. The hope, however, is strong that in view of the steady march of arbitration, the aversion to war, the demands of the masses for internal and social reform (which if enforced would leave little treasure for warlike adventures), even the really grave and difficult questions that are still outstanding may be solved with peace and honor rather than by appeal to the sword and the torch.



II. Its Characteristics

By George Wharton Edwards

THE impression that the traveler in Holland gets is in one respect similar to that given by our own western prairie regions ; and the broad, windy stretch of flat country, with comparatively few trees, and lying open to the gales of the North Sea, has a little of the same bleak air. But with this is mingled a most unaccustomed aspect of novelty. These fields are cultivated with the care of suburban market gardens, and are separated by long, V-shaped ditches, through which the water runs sluggishly some feet below the surface of the ground. Looking across them, one sees broad, brown velvety-hued sails moving in various directions among the growing crops ; the roadway is on an embankment, running high above the land, frequently crossing canals, lying far enough below for the well-laden barges with lowered masts to pass freely, generally without the need of draw-bridges. It will be readily understood that the dykes are a very important feature of the country and some of these are well worth examination if the visitor have plenty of time on his hands. For the most part they are composed of earth and sand and clay, kept together by willows which are carefully planted and tended. Some of the dykes, however, for example the gigantic one at the Helder, are built of masonry. Many of them are broad at the top and being paved with klinkers (brick) form very good carriage roads. The dunes or sand hills which line

*Copyright, 1908, by George Wharton Edwards. The first article of this series, a brief outline of the history of Holland, appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN.

the coast serve as the barrier against the ocean. They are systematically sown at regular intervals with a coarse, grayish green grass, which holds the sand together, preventing the wind from blowing it away altogether. Some six million guilders are spent annually by the Dutch government in keeping these dykes in order, and a special body of engineers called "De Waterstaat" is appointed to look after them. An elaborate system of drainage has also to be maintained by means of powerful engines, windmills, etc. It must be remembered that the Dutch people have not only to fight against the inroads of the ocean but they have also to deal with many rivers which, taking their rise in other countries, flow through Holland for their final exit into the sea. Consequently, when there are heavy rains, say in Germany, the Rhine brings down an immense volume of water to add to the troublesome superfluity. The two principal canals are the North Holland Canal which was constructed in 1819-25 from Amsterdam to the Helder and which is forty-six miles in length, one hundred and thirty feet broad, and twenty feet deep, and the North Sea Canal, stretching from Amsterdam to the east coast, and of a width varying from sixty-five to one hundred and ten yards. Here are locks consisting of large basins, which are tremendous pieces of engineering. Their construction cost the State an enormous sum. The Merwede Canal is about one hundred feet wide and something like forty-four miles long.

The climate of Holland is similar to that of England for Spring, Summer, and Autumn, save that it is warmer in the Summer and the cold is much more severe in Winter. August is the hot month and the least preferable. During the Spring the country around about Haarlem presents an aspect of indescribable patch-works of great sheets of color. These are the tulip beds, vivid and beautiful, but the bulbs are grown for profit, not pleasure, and economy of space is carefully studied. Holland has a relatively low rainfall, accounted for by the absence of heights to attract rain-clouds. But as a matter of fact, the experienced trav-

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eler does well to provide himself with mackintosh and umbrella, for the showers, though brief, are frequent.

The guilder, or florin is the common basis of the Dutch currency. Commonly called a guilder, plural gulden, it is always written "f" for florin, thus 65.00, f. 1.25, etc. The decimal system is used. There are one hundred cents in a guilder. The half guilder and quarter guilder are as common as our own fifty-cent pieces and quarters. The following table will be explanatory. Copper coinage, one half cent equals one-tenth of our cent; one cent equals one-fifth of our cent. Silver coinage: five cents equals two cents; ten cents equals four cents; twenty-five cents equals ten cents; fifty cents equals twenty; one guilder about forty cents, two and one-half gulden about one dollar. Gold coinage, ten gulden equals about four dollars. Paper notes for five, ten, and twenty-five gulden are in use everywhere. At hotels, the English pound is valued at twelve gulden, but money changers in the large cities, generally give a few cents more.

Self-government is a part of the life instinct of the methodical Dutchman, and was at the root of the country's antagonism to Spain. With an inborn love of administering their own affairs, they combine a respect for constitutional authority and a deep reverence for their sovereign.

The country is divided into 1,100 communes—urban or rural districts. The enfranchised inhabitants elect the communal council, or "Gemeente Raad," which holds office for six years, and is presided over by a burgomaster. The latter, however, is nominated by the sovereign. In authority over the "Gemeente Raad" is the Provincial States, also a popularly elected body, presided over by a commissioner appointed by the crown. The duties of the Provincial States are administrative in their own state only. The elect hold office for six years.

Above the Provincial States are the "States General," consisting of two chambers. The First or Upper House

(fifty members holding office for nine years), receives its election from the members of the Provincial States. The other, commonly called The Chamber, is elected by the people. Over the second chamber sits a President, appointed by the Sovereign. Here all national legislative business is transacted, and bills intended to become law are prepared and sent up to the First Chamber. The latter cannot propose measures on its own initiative. The Executive or Cabinet consists of ten ministers, each chosen by the Sovereign, usually from the Lower House, for the Premier must always be a member of "The Chamber." The portfolios are as follows: Finance, Justice, Foreign Affairs, Marine, Interior or Home, War, Public Works, Waterways, Trade and Industry, Agriculture and Labor, Colonies.

In addition to governing by ministers, the sovereign elects the "Raad van Staat," a body somewhat higher than the Privy Council of England, for it has powers by which it deals with (1) government bills brought before "De Kamer" (the Lower House) and (2) private bills awaiting royal sanction. Although elected for the respective terms named above, one-third of the members of the "Gemeente Raad," the Provincial States and "De Kamer" retire automatically every two or three years, but are eligible for re-election.

The army service is maintained partly voluntarily and partly by conscription, determined by a ballot. Exemptions are allowed to sons of indigent parents and other special cases. According to the nearest authority at hand, the strength of the peace-footing is 1,950 officers and 25,000 men. For war the numbers would be immediately raised to 126,000 with 50,000 auxiliaries.

For the national budget, the following are some recent figures, omitting the cost of the army and navy which, combined, absorb only three and three-quarter millions, paid for by separate taxation. In 1904-05 expenditure exceeded income, a most unusual occurrence in Holland, but the national debt was reduced by two and one-half millions. The

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imports are a little under two hundred millions sterling, including twenty millions from the united kingdom. The exports are 170 millions, including thirty-eight millions to the united kingdom.

Of the religion of the population of Holland, about three-fifths are Protestants and two-fifths Roman Catholics. There are about one hundred thousand Jews of whom nearly one-half are in Amsterdam. The Protestants are subdivided into innumerable sects, the chief being the Dutch Reform Church. This is the State Church but is disestablished.

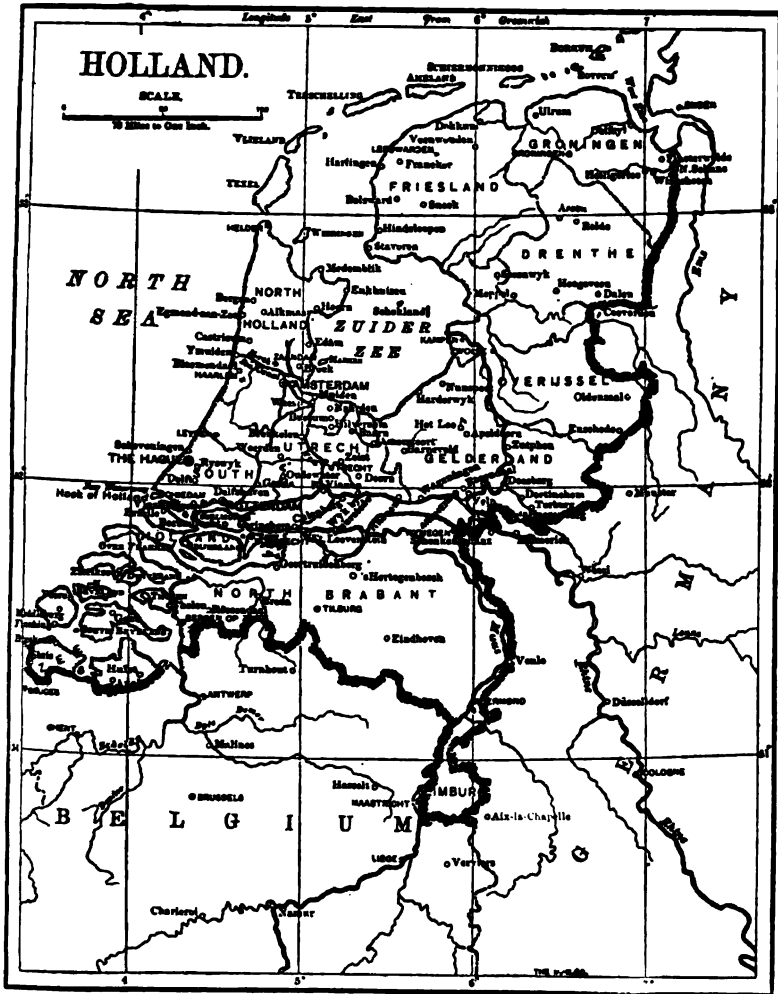
The national census of the population is taken every ten years. The following are the figures for the last three decadal periods:

December 31, 1879.....	4,013,000
December 31, 1889.....	4,549,000
December 31, 1899.....	5,104,000

There are only four towns with populations exceeding one hundred thousand, namely:

Amsterdam	524,000
The Hague and Scheveningen.....	250,000
Rotterdam	320,000
Utrecht	102,000

To return to the subject of money. Before going to Holland, the traveler would better make himself acquainted thoroughly with the mysteries of the Dutch coinage, and learn the coins by heart. The stranger is rather apt to treat the guilder, which is the principal coin, too much as if it were equivalent to a shilling but he will find that the balance will come out on the wrong side, as the guilder equals 1s. 8ds. Then the "dubbeltje," a silver coin, representing two-pence and looking not unlike our old-fashioned three-cent piece, long since recalled from circulation, is so ridiculously tiny that one loses sight of its real value. The following are the names of the Dutch coins now in circulation: Halve Stuyver, Stuyver, Dubbeltje, Kwartje or



Outline Map of Holland.

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Vijfje, —Halve Gulden, Gulden, Rijksdaalder, Gouden Willem or Tientje. This last coin is of gold.

The traveler will say that the less said about the Dutch language, the better for him. He will probably find it as hard to make "de accents coom" as Hans Breitmann found was the case with English. But one great advantage in choosing Holland as a holiday resort is that the majority of the Dutch people know some English and as a rule they are proud of their knowledge and prefer to use it whenever possible. They appear to be able to learn foreign languages with great facility, for even among the lowest orders, many may be found who speak several languages besides their own. This may be partly accounted for by the fact that their own language is so difficult and so little understood out of Holland, that the Dutch in self-defence are obliged to acquire the tongues of other nations in order to compete in business. Perhaps it will not be out of place to incorporate here a short Dutch vocabulary:

Will you tell me.

If you please.

Wil U mij zeggen.

Als 't U belieft.

Where is.....	Waar is —.....
Which is the way to.....	Ho is de weg naar.....
Is this the way to.....	Is dit de weg naar.....
Is this.....	Is det —.....
The station?	Het station?
The train for —?	De trein naar?
The booking office?	Het kaartjes-bureau?
The waiting room?	De wachtkamer?
The refreshment room?	De restauratie?
The cloak room?	Het bagagabureau?
The baggage office?	De bewaarplaats bagage?
The telegraph office?	Het telegraafkantoor?
The postoffice?	Het postkantoor?
The custom house?	Het douanekantoor?
The boat for—?	De boot naar —?

Dutch is one of the most difficult of languages to acquire, being more guttural than German, which it somewhat resembles, and it may be classed by the student as a lower Frankish dialect. According to the best authorities it existed as early as the thirteenth century. It has developed



Dutch Dairy Proprietor and His Wife, at Broeck in Vaterland. See Photographs of their House-Factory on pages 200 and 201.



House, Edam Cheese Factory, and Stable all under one Roof.

a strong individuality, is expressive and devoid of the character of patois such as hampers the Flemish tongue. It has incorporated words of foreign origin less perhaps than any other of the low countries, and is of a remarkable richness and flexibility. Some words of Romanic origin will be recognized by the student, such as: Gids (guide), Rekwest (request), Kantoor (comptoir), Katoen (cotton), Kwarties (quarter). Its literature is rich and vigorous as may be recognized by the following verse from a favorite song:

Wien Neerlandsch bloed in de aderen vloeit,
 Van vreemde smetten vrij,
 Wiens hartvoorland en Koning gloeit,
 Verhef den zang als wij:
 Hij stel met ons, vereend vanzin,
 Met onbeklemde borst,
 Het godgevallig feestlied in
 Voor Vaderland en Vorst.—*Tollens.*



Stalls for the Cattle—Under Same Roof as the Living Rooms of Owner.

(Literal translation: "Let him, in whose veins flows Netherlandish blood, free from foreign stain, and whose heart glows for country and king, raise the song with us, united in sentiment, with unburdened breast, in the festal song, pleasing to God, for Fatherland, and Sovereign.")

The vowels, a, e, i, o, u are pronounced as in French, and are lengthened, but not altered in sound, by being doubled (thus oo-o); ei and ij, or y, are like the vowel sound in the French pays; au and ou like ow in now, but broader (aw-oo); eu like the French eu or the German o; oe like the English oo or the German u; ui has a sound fluctuating between oi and ow (as in now). In most other combinations of vowels each retains its usual sound. All the consonants are pronounced as in English, except g and ch, which have a guttural sound like the ch in the Scotch word loch, or the g in the German Tag; w, which is pronounced like v; j like the English y or ee; and



A Dutch Meadow.



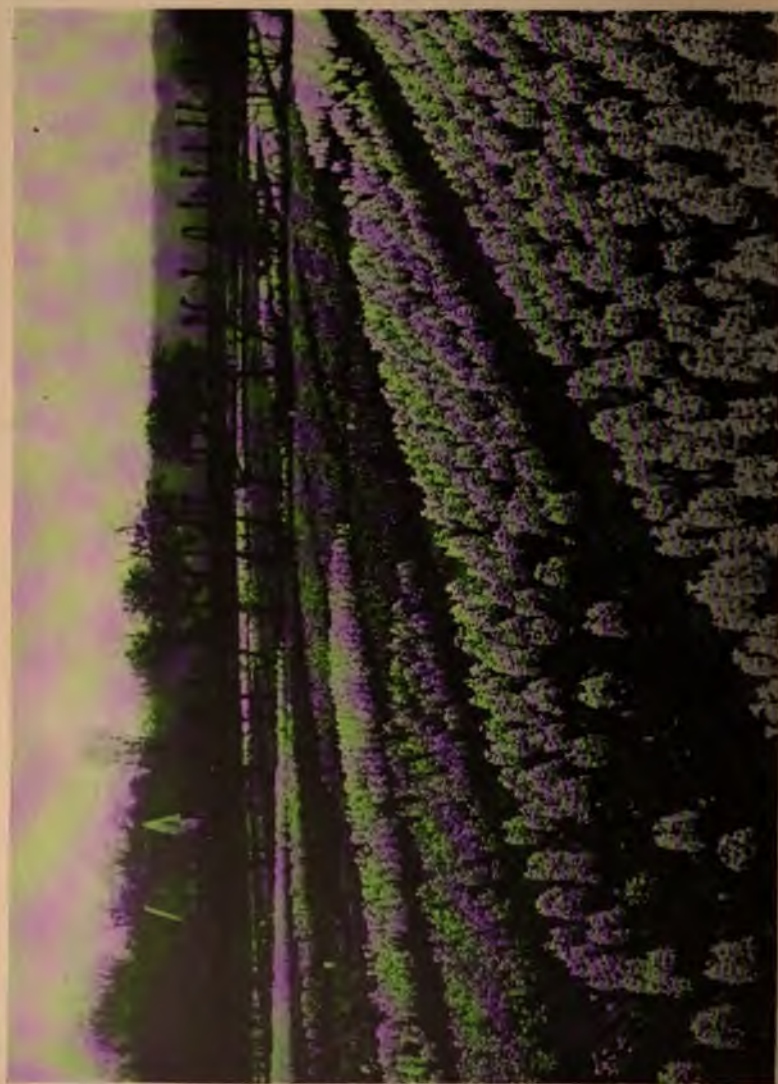
Windmill and Canal, Holland.



Windmills at Zaandam, Holland.



Scene on a Dutch Canal.



A Field of Hyacinths, Holland.



A Dutch Tulip Farm.



Cattle in the Meadows, Holland.



Dog-Cart, Volendam, Holland.



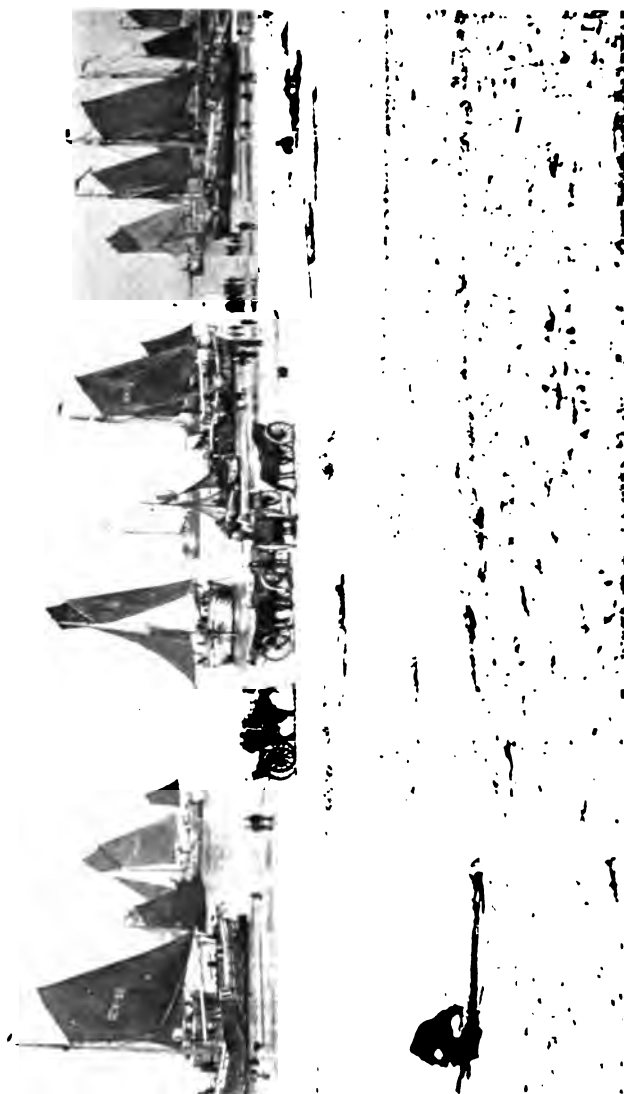
Milking the Cows, Holland.



Hollanders of the Island of Marken in Gala Attire.



A Dutch Fishing Boat.



A Fleet of Fishing Boats, Holland.



The Fishing Boats at the Island of Marken.

v like f. Final n is often dropped in colloquial speech (e. g., *Leyde'* for *Leyden*).

The definite article is *de* for the masculine and feminine, and *het* for the neuter; genitive *des*, *der*, *des*, or *van den*, *van de*, *van het*; dative *den*, *der*, *den*, or *aan den*, *aan de*, *aan het*; plural for all genders *de*, *den*, *de*.

Amsterdam is the capital of the kingdom, and the Hague is the official residence of the Queen and Consort, although they prefer to occupy the "House in the Wood," or "*Huis ten Bosche*." The Netherlands are divided into eleven provinces; North Brabant, the capital of which is *Hertogenbosch*; Drenthe, the capital of which is *Assen*; Friesland, capital *Leeuwarden*; Guelderland, capital *Arnhem*; Groningen, capital *Groningen*; North Holland, capital *Amsterdam*; South Holland, *The Hague*; Limburg, *Maastricht*; Over-Yssel, capital *Zwolle*; Utrecht, capital *Utrecht*; Zeeland, capital *Middelburg*. Besides these provinces, the district of *Luxemburg*, 210,000 inhabitants, capital of the same name is a Duchy under the crown. The most important Dutch colonies in the East Indies are *Java*, *Sumatra*, *Borneo*, and *Celebes*; in the West Indies, *Surinam*, *St. Eustache*,

and Curacao; to which must be added a number of factories or state holdings in Guiana. The total area of these possessions amounts to 766,000 square miles and the population to 28-29,000,000 souls. As near as one can find out, the navy consists in the neighborhood of 150 vessels, of which only a few are of the first class, commanded by two vice-admirals, four rear-admirals, " 'schouten-by-nacht," 26 captains, 35 commanders, and manned by upwards of 7,500 hands.

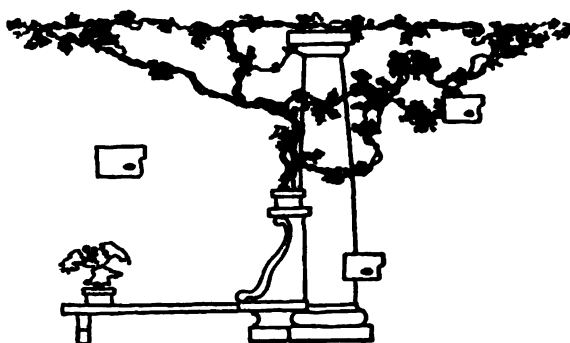
Now study a map of the country and we shall see that on two sides it is bounded by the German Ocean and on the other two by France and Germany. More than this, the latter boundaries are not made up of natural barriers; they are simply lines upon the map, passing through level districts and intersected by great rivers. Here then we might pause for a moment to see how the geographical factor has influenced this people. Although the sea coast stretched along but two sides of the country, it was one perhaps even more favorable to commerce than that of England, affording by its indentations innumerable refuges against the pirates of former days, the chief enemies of trade. This relation to the sea made of the people from the earliest time, a race of sailors. Having no mountain ranges like the Alps, no rocky fastnesses like those of Switzerland, the low countries have in all ages been subject to the incursions of their lawless neighbors. "The cock pit of Europe," is the name given to this region in modern days, from the number of battles which have been fought upon its soil. To the enormous war expenses thrust upon them is largely due the comparative decline of these once all-powerful and wealthy provinces.

Still greater has been the influence of another feature of their geographical position. Manufactures and commerce brought wealth, and with it luxury, love of art, and learning, but especially in Holland, none of the enervation which usually follows. In most lands, accumulated wealth has bred a disinclination to labor, fostering a leisured

class, the great curse of a community. But here the time has never come when men could sit down and say their work was finished. Before them has ever stood the sea, daily and hourly threatening their existence. Their fathers made the land, but it is theirs to preserve only by incessant labor. A little crevice in their dykes, unnoticed for a few hours, might devastate a district. Even with the most watchful care, no man can go to bed at night, assured that in the morning he will find his possession safe. These conditions of life in the Netherlands must always be remembered if we would understand their history.

Everything in Holland is done in corporations. The people are a vast civic army, subdivided into brigades, regiments, and companies, all accustomed to discipline, learning the first great lesson of life, obedience. This daily contest with Nature, the regularity of life thus enforced, and the attention to minute details essential to existence, crush the romantic spirit which makes some nations picturesque. We find among them none of the wild sagas or chants of the northern people. No poet sings to them of goblins and fairy sprites. Their world is inhabited by actualities and by witches or the spirits of dead heroes. Hence, they were never highly poetical, as the English were until after the time of Shakespeare when they too became a race of manufacturers and merchants. They are not contemplative philosophers like the Germans; they dwell in no abstractions and indulge in little sentiment. Life here below has been their study; how to improve the condition of man upon this planet; how to make the home attractive by art, music, flowers, and social recreation; how to dispense justice to rich and poor alike, relieve the unfortunate, and give everyone an equal chance in life; how to protect the oppressed from other lands, keeping the conscience as well as the body free; how to teach the world that men can be rich without insolence, poor without discontent, learned without pride, artistic without

corruption, earnest in religion without bigotry. This is honor enough, as Douglas Campbell well says in his "Puritan in Holland, England, and America." Had these people also produced a Homer, a Dante, or a Shakespeare, they would have been a miracle and not a growth.





II. Rembrandt--First Article*

By George Breed Zug

Assistant Professor in the History of Art, University of Chicago.

REMBRANDT was born of well-to-do burgher parents in Leyden in 1606. As they hoped that their son would enter one of the learned professions they had him receive some instruction in Latin, but it is a disputed point whether he ever really studied in the university of his native town. He may easily have acquired through translations his knowledge of classic mythology which he shows in many pictures. Indeed very little study is necessary for a young man of Rembrandt's genius; with such as he, insight takes the place of learning. In an inventory of Rembrandt's possessions, made in 1656, only fifteen books are mentioned and those, we are told, were of a miscellaneous character. One of the books, however, was a Bible, which it seems was the master's constant companion.

His predilection for an artistic career was early apparent, and at the age of fourteen he was placed as a student under the painter Swanenburch. After three years of his instruction Rembrandt passed to the studio of Lastmann. It may be that Lastmann started Rembrandt in his study of *chiaroscuro*† during the short period of work under him. Little of importance can, however, be learned of the influence of these teachers of his youth. Upon leaving the studio of Lastmann at Amsterdam, Rembrandt returned to Leyden

*The first article of the series upon "Dutch Art and Artists" appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN, the subject "Frans Hals and the Portrait."

†An Italian word pronounced Kyáh-ro-skoó-ra. The art of handling light and shade in a picture so as to produce harmony.

and there settled down to a period of intense application and continual experiment which must have been the true foundation of his greatness. The earliest painting which has come down to us, "Saint Paul in Prison," of the Stuttgart Museum, bears the date of 1627. And although only a half dozen paintings executed in this and the succeeding five years are known today, yet he must have made good use of his time, for in 1632 was painted one of his masterpieces, "The Anatomy Lesson."

M. Michel, Rembrandt's biographer, has some interesting pages introductory to "The Anatomy Lesson" in which he relates the difficulty with which the more advanced Dutch scientists had had to contend in legalizing dissection of corpses. "It was violently opposed by the nation at large, the popular disapproval being mainly dictated by religious scruples based on the doctrine of the resurrection." It was about the turn of the sixteenth century that science prevailed and dissections became legalized. Whereupon a very great interest in the subject of anatomy arose and universities and guilds vied with each other in fitting out halls or Theaters of Anatomy. What then more natural than that Dutch art, "an art always swift to observe and eager to interpret the manifestations of natural life," should find here a subject for artistic interpretation? There are many persons who base their opinion of a work of art on their interest in the subject rather than upon the artistic elements, the drawing, the color, and the handling; to such this representation of a corpse may be repulsive. To others "The Anatomy Lesson" may seem at first not deserving of high praise. Fromentin says that "the general tone is neither warm nor cold, but simply yellow;" that the handling is thin and unimpassioned;—and that "there is little richness either in the stuffs, the background or the atmosphere." It is true there is not the atmospheric effect or the magic (or the poetry of light) of Rembrandt's later style; it is true as Fromentin says that the flesh of the corpse is puffy. But consider the treatment of this subject by Rembrandt's pred-

ecessors. With them the audiences were arranged either in monotonous symmetry or in confusion, while the spectators are staring out of the picture entirely unmindful of the master and his lesson; moreover revolting details are introduced. Compare with this the simplicity and dignity of Rembrandt's treatment. Doctor Tulp is seated in a vaulted chamber; forceps in hand, he lifts the tendons of the partly dissected arm, emphasizing his remarks with expressive gesture. One is struck by the self-forgetfulness of the doctor and his disciples who seem to hang upon his words. How delicately are the heads of his hearers drawn, how expressive their eyes, how attentive their look! By the interest in these heads, the prominence of the doctor, the play of light on the features, and the diagonal position of the cadaver with the feet in shadow, all attention is drawn from the latter. One does not think of any unattractiveness in the subject.

So important did the work appear to Rembrandt's contemporaries that the picture established his reputation. He was crowded with commissions. Fellow painters, diplomats, ladies of high degree, statesmen, clergymen, and philosophers were eager to be painted by the greatest master of the time. Some of them had to wait months to obtain the privilege of a sitting. More than forty portraits have been assigned to the years between 1632 and 1634. The flatness of the uppermost head, the nearly equal attention paid to each of the disciples, the precision of drawing, the thinness of the painting, and the lack of atmosphere are all traits which point to the early period of the painter's career. And though this, his first corporation piece, was his best work thus far, he was still learning his art and was destined to pass on to still greater things. It was the commission for "The Anatomy Lesson," destined for the Hall of Surgeons in Amsterdam, which led Rembrandt to move from Leyden to Amsterdam in 1632. There in that busy mart of commerce he was increasingly successful and about 1641 he received another commission for a great cor-

poration picture,—the so-called "Night Watch." As he became more sure of success he painted about 1640-42 a number of portraits which were not merely individualized likenesses after the manner of his earlier work and that of the Amsterdam school, but were rather artistic studies in which the face was only a note, as it were, in a harmony of color and light and shade. He occasionally worked in a more untrammelled manner, when he thought more of his art than of his sitter, when he ceased to paint mere transcripts of nature, and allowed himself to indulge his fancy and to paint as his genius suggested. It was this emancipated Rembrandt to whom there came in 1641-2 the commission to paint another of the corporation pieces in which he had achieved his success in the earlier period of comparative self-restraint.

The so-called "Night Watch" has been the subject of much discussion and difference of opinion. What is the subject and what is the idea it is intended to convey? For many years the picture hung in the meeting place of the corporation for which it was painted. Such halls were little more than tap rooms where the fumes from peat fires, the tobacco smoke of the burghers' pipes settled on the canvas, and the dirt and dust which accumulated upon it were covered again and again with coats of varnish. The result was so dark an effect that when one knows the facts one no longer marvels that the title of "The Night Watch" was given to the picture in the eighteenth century. Sir Joshua Reynolds writes of it in a way which shows he had no realization of the subject or the artistic character of the picture. It was not until late in the nineteenth century that the successive coats of dirt and varnish and repaint were removed and the real theme became apparent. Then it was discovered to be an open air scene, the sun high in the heavens casts the shadow of the outstretched hand of Captain Banning Cocq across the coat of the lieutenant who walks at his side. It is a call to arms of the Civic Guards, the captain and his lieutenant are coming forward as leaders of the party, four guardsmen whose heads appear above

those of the captain and his companion have just stepped out of the place of meeting and are raising spears and flag after having lowered them to pass through the arch, which is a part of the background (as may be verified from an old copy of the painting now in the National Gallery, London). An officer at the left is giving an order with a gesture of command, the drummer beats the signal, the members of the company are getting ready their weapons, and children rush upon the scene to participate in the excitement of the start. It is a scene of movement such as Rembrandt had often witnessed, but he treats it according to his fancy; he clothes the people in a variety of strange garments; introduces the odd squat figure of a girl in a saffron garment, and a boy in a huge helmet in the act of discharging his match-lock in dangerous proximity to the soldiers. There is in it all a certain air of strain and effort, something theatrical, and, even in its original state a use of light and shade which is too pronounced for an open air scene.

Compare this with the clarity and realism of "The Anatomy Lesson," or Van der Helst's "Officers of the Guild of Archers of Saint Adriaen," which we reproduce. This last painting and the similar picture by Hals show an even distribution of light and an equal prominence to each figure, which was what the officers desired. Hence this original treatment of a familiar subject was unwelcome to Captain Cocq and his comrades; it was objected that some of the officers were too prominent in the picture, while others were not prominent enough. The trouble was that his clients wished a series of portraits; Rembrandt preferred to produce a work of art. Hals and Van der Helst had pleased their sitters, Rembrandt with his usual independence strove only to please himself. He had produced a masterpiece of all time, a work of the imagination which was to be the admiration of artists for centuries to come; a poem in paint; but it lacked the plain prose to which his contemporaries were accustomed and it marked the beginning of his difficulties, and the waning of his popularity.





100The Night Watch* (Sortie of the Civic Guard): 1642. By Rembrandt.
In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.





Portrait of Rembrandt, by Himself. 1640. National Gallery, London.
Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.



Portrait of Rembrandt, by Himself. 1658. (Detail). In the Vienna Museum.

Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.



The Mennonite Prescher, Anso. 1641. By Rembrandt. In the Berlin Museum.
Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.





Portrait of an Old Woman. By Rembrandt. In the Vienna Museum.

Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.

The most brilliant criticism of Rembrandt is that of Fromentin. In his "*Les Maitres d' Autrefois*" he propounds the theory that in the master there were two natures which were sometimes at variance, that of a realist and that of a pronounced idealist. As a realist Rembrandt is a skilled and sane interpreter of the people as they are and an admirable craftsman, a painter of the somewhat traditional type, the author of such portraits as the "Old Woman" of Vienna (here reproduced), but of consummate skill. As an idealist he is an original genius, a visionary, a magician in light and shade. In "*The Night Watch*," or more properly, "*The Sortie of the Civic Guard*," there is a certain strange mingling of timidity and strength, according to Fromentin a conflict between the realist and the idealist. A harmonious union of these two dual natures is seen in the important corporation picture of "*The Syndics of the Cloth Guild*," which he painted almost twenty years later in 1661.

No small reproduction can show what a difference there is between this work and "*The Lesson in Anatomy*" of almost thirty years earlier. Rembrandt with his usual intellectual curiosity had been experimenting all these years; the skilful hand and the deep-seeing eye produced here what sums up his life's work; never before had he produced such a masterpiece, never again in the eight years of life remaining to him was he to conceive and execute such a work of art. The Syndics or overseers of the Guild of Drapers are represented seated about a table where they have been engaged in verifying the accounts. It is as if someone has opened a door and surprised them at their occupation. They look up at the new comer in sturdy Dutch fashion. They are dressed in black with white collars and wear tall black hats. The servant, as becomes his office, takes his place in the background. The table is covered by a cloth of rich scarlet; a wainscot of yellowish brown wood forms the background. Unlike "*The Anatomy Lesson*" the picture is filled with atmosphere which the Syndics seem to breathe. The picture is treated broadly, the paint is heavy

and substantial, the surface is as beautiful in itself as that of any picture ever painted. The color is deep, subdued, and harmonious. Never has white been more beautifully painted; never has black been more richly translated into pigments.

When visitors to the Rijks Museum in Amsterdam stand before this painting there is a hush, for the picture, simple as it is, is solemn, eloquent, appealing, the culmination of the art of one of the masters of all time. These three great corporation pictures of which we have written should be taken as representative of Rembrandt's early, middle, and late periods, although these periods are not sharply defined the one from the other, but, rather, blend one into the other. The important thing to note is the steady progress of the master in his art, his constant increase in technical ability, in spiritual insight, and in ideality. Like other great masters of the brush he at first studied and reproduced the shapes of nature accurately and with care. He was laying the foundation of his knowledge of nature; gradually his style became broader and broader and his insight deeper. Comparison of these three great portrait groups show the three stages of his progress.

It remains to notice some of his other portraits. "Anslo Consoling the Widow," which may be taken to stand for the group of double portraits, was painted in 1641, one year before "The Night Watch." In this as in "The Shipbuilder and his Wife," and in "The Jewish Bride," Rembrandt beautifully unites two figures in thought and action. In the first named group, the minister Anslo is administering consolation to the widow from the pages of the open Bible. The expression of earnestness and the impressive gesture seem to comfort and sustain the widow. Rembrandt was gifted with the ability to suggest by a look and a movement the deeper things of life. This may be seen in the outstretched hands of "The Shipbuilder and his Wife," and in the up-raised arm and alert look of the disciples in the "Christ at Emmaus." In this Rembrandt reminds one of two other

masters of other schools, Giotto and Millet. Different as they are from the painter of "The Night Watch," they too have the gift of significant gesture which may mean more than words. As he grew older Rembrandt seems indeed to have had an increasingly deeper vision. Whereas Hals interpreted the passing moods of men, Rembrandt seems in some of his later portraits to have penetrated their very souls. With this in mind compare the two portraits of himself which we reproduce. Of over fifty self portraits of the master which have come down to us, that in the National Gallery, London (here reproduced), cannot be excelled for its serene and delicate quality. It dates from 1640. He represents himself as a comparatively young man leaning slightly on a stone sill. The rich color shows through a luminous atmosphere. There are the gold and amber tones with which his palette was richly stored. The gradations of color and of light shade in the flesh tints are rendered with a most delicate art, and the drawing of the eyes and nose as subtle as with Holbein. And if there is no more charming self portrait by a great artist, there is at least another more profound.

In the half length portrait of himself in Vienna the head of which we reproduce, the artist strikes a deeper note. Reference is not made merely to the broader way of painting, the fusing of colors in this Vienna head, but to the psychological interpretation of the man. This head shows the Rembrandt who has been buffeted by fortune but who retains his indomitable will. Something of this spiritual insight, this penetration is seen in the "Old Woman" of the Vienna Gallery, and in a score of other portraits as well as in many of the master's scenes from the Old and New Testament. It places him on a higher plane than that occupied by any interpreter of the external man.

The seventeenth century produced unapproachable masters of the art of painting—the Flemish Rubens, the painter of exuberant vitality and epic grandeur, the Spanish Velasquez, the creator of profound harmonies in tone and color,

and the Dutch Rembrandt, the magician in light and shade. In all there is much the same development from precise workmanship and brilliant color to breadth of handling, mellow color, and penetration of character. In all three their art is many sided; in Rubens and Rembrandt it seems to be as wide and deep as life itself. In all three there is an universality in spirit and outlook.

We have tried to suggest something of the progress of Rembrandt's art, something of his variety and skill as a painter of corporation pictures, something of his insight in his portraits. He was one of those masters who seem to love paint in and for itself, in a word he was a painter. For the rendering of form, for significant gesture, for versatility and insight he remains unexcelled. But the quality for which he is unique remains to be emphasized. He was the greatest of all masters of chiaroscuro. Whereas the Italians compose in line, and Velasquez in tone, Rembrandt composes in light and shade. Nor is that all; Leonardo and Correggio seem to employ chiaroscuro for an end in itself, but Rembrandt uses it as a means of interpretation, as a method of rendering character, as suggestive of spirituality. There seems to breathe in the paintings of Rembrandt something of the mystery which pervades our life; many of his pictures seem to be full of meaning yet inexplicable.

We defer for another paper a brief notice of some of Rembrandt's other themes, his scenes of domestic life, his religious subjects, his landscapes, and his etchings. It is as impossible to sum up the great qualities of Rembrandt in a few sentences as it is to do justice in a paragraph to Shakespeare. If the latter was myriad-minded, the master of the "Syndics" was myriad-eyed. Understanding of such geniuses takes years of study of their works, and years of contemplation of what those works tell as to their creator's development, versatility, and universality.

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In the Metropolitan Museum, New York, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, and Art Institute, Chicago, may be seen original examples of Rembrandt's work.



Vader Cats*

By Austin Dobson

TO an uninstructed reader the homely name that heads this paper does not, in itself, suggest any special distinction. When we are informed that Jacob Cats was a native of Holland, our first impression is of some typical Dutchman, squat-figured and stolid, preoccupied with a pipe and tulips. If it be added that he wrote verses, speculation goes no farther than to conceive a minstrel of the type of Longfellow's "Cobbler of Hagenau," chirruping his songs at his work-bench, and having ever

"at his side,
Among his leathers and his tools
Reynard the Fox, the Ship of Fools,
Or Eulenspiegel, open wide."

Each of these forecasts, however, is equally at fault. As a Dutchman, Jacob Cats was one of the prominent men of his age. He had gained honor as a Greek Scholar at Leyden University; he had traveled in France and England, visiting both Oxford and Cambridge. He was an accomplished jurist; and though—as some authorities allege—he had but little success as a politician, he was, at all events, a great civic dignitary in the great days of the Netherlands, holding important office as a magistrate at Middleburgh and Dordrecht, and ultimately proceeding Grand Pensionary of Holland. He was twice Ambassador to England, being knighted on the first occasion by Charles I. When finally, at the age of seventy-two, he obtained the permission of the States to retire into private life at his country-seat of Sorghvliet—his "Sans-Souci" or "Castle-Careless"—on the Scheveningen Road, it was as a man who on the whole had de-

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The illustrations are reproduced especially for THE CHAUTAUQUAN from the original edition of the works of Jacob Cats published in Amsterdam in 1655.

served well of his generation, and might fairly be permitted to "cultivate his garden," and write his "Reminiscences."

But if he acquired a reputation as a citizen, he earned a still greater reputation as a poet. He was a contemporary of Hooft and Vondel, and that delightful Tesselschade Vischer, of whom Mr. Edmund Gosse has given us so pleasant a portrait; and he was probably the most popular of the four. By his readers he was affectionately styled "Vader Cats;" and his collected works in Familiar moments were known as the "Household Bible." His big folio was to be found by poor men's hearths and in the windows of the rich—even as Baker's "Chronicle" lay in the windows of Sir Roger de Coverley. When now we open the vast volume (i. e., Jan Jacobz Schipper's Amsterdam edition of 1655), its bulk appals us. It is a book to be approached only from the side of dimension. It is so high: it measures so much about. Not to lay stress on the blackness of the type, which is in itself portentous, it is printed in two columns,—sometimes even in three. Turning the tall pages timidly, you become conscious, in addition to a Babel of proverbs and emblems in all languages, of a long didactic poem on "Marriage" (*Houwelick*), which traces that institution, with abundant illustration, from maidenhood to widowhood. Then of another, and a still longer effort, entitled "Nuptial Ring" (*Trou-ringh*), wherein it is treated, amongst other things, of Crates and Hipparchia, of Adam and Eve, of Masinissa and Sophonisba, of Eginhard and the daughter of Charlemagne, of Jacob and Rachel (Jacob, it may be noted in parenthesis, has apparently been educated in France, for in the picture he has carved "la belle Rachelle" upon a tree-trunk, and written under it "Vive L'Amour"). Then there is a pastoral romance of "Galatea;" a poem on "Country-Life" (*Buytenleven*), in the frontispiece of which is a view of Sorgh-vliet, and towards the end of the book, another series of poems called cheerfully "Coffins for the Living" (*Doodt-Kiste voor de Levendige*). These are only part of the contents. Besides and between them are numerous other

pieces, accompanied like the rest by prefaces and sub-prefaces, by appendices, excursuses, commentaries, head-notes, shoulder-notes, side-notes, foot-notes, postscripts, and addresses to the *Lector benignus* ("*goetgunstige Leser*") which hedge them in on all sides. Poetry, with this Dutch poet, is not by any means a trickling rill from Helicon; it is an inundation *à la mode du pays*,—a flood in a flat land, covering everything far and near with its sluggish waters.

To this immoderate and incontinent effusiveness is probably to be attributed the fact that, notwithstanding their excellent precepts and praiseworthy morality, the poems of Jacob Cats do not seem to have largely attracted the translator. Report, indeed, affirms that his entire works have been "done into German;" but this would be of little service to the ordinary English reader. The French, on the other hand, have contented themselves with an imitation of the short piece entitled "Children's Games (*Kinder-Spel*). In our own country, multifarious old Thomas Heywood, the dramatist, paraphrased the first part of *Houwelick* under the title of "An Emblematicall Dialogue, interpreted from the excellent and most learned *D. Jac. Catsius*; which sheweth how Virgins in their chaste loves ought to bear themselves." And as late as 1860 many of the emblems and proverbs were translated by Richard Pigot to accompany the "freely-rendered" cuts of John Leighton. But our concern here is less with the text than with the old copperplates which originally accompanied it, and which, fortunately for us, speak a universal language.

These, printed in the body of the page, are generally uniform in size, and surrounded by a conventional border. Many of them bear the initials or names of such well-known engravers as Hondius, the two Mathams, and Crispin van Queborn. But the main interest centers in the chief designer, Adrian van der Venne, a painter of considerable ability, and noted especially for the prodigious canvases on which, like the Frenchman Lebrun, he depicted the battles of the seventeenth century. After drifting to and fro,



Jacob Cats, Dutch Diplomat and Poet.

he seems to have settled at Middleburgh, where Cats also resided from 1602 to 1620. His brother, Jan Pietersz van der Venne, was a bookseller and publisher of the town, and for him he executed numberless book-illustrations in addition to those now under consideration. He is said also to have possessed no mean literary talent, and to have written satirical works. It is probably a natural consequence of his *modus operandi* that he should reproduce his environment; and many views and memories of the capital of Zee-



Children's Games—In the Background the Square of Middleburgh.

land and the surrounding country are traceable in his compositions. Perhaps the most interesting of these is to be found in the large head-piece of the above-mentioned "Children's Games," the background of which exhibits the great square of Middleburgh, with its old Gothic houses and central clump of trees. This is, moreover, as delightful a picture as any in the gallery. Down the middle of the foreground, which is filled by a crowd of figures, advances a



The Village Dance.

regiment of little Dutchmen, marching to drum and fife, and led by a fire-eating captain of fifteen. Around this central group are dispersed knots of children, playing leap-frog, flying kites, blowing bubbles, whipping tops, walking on stilts, skipping and the like. In one corner the boys are busy with blind-man's buff; in the other the girls, with their stiff head-dresses and vandyked aprons, are occupied with their dolls. Under the pump some seventeenth-century equivalent for chuck-far-thing seems to be going on vigorously; and, not to be behindhand in the fun, two little fellows in the distance are standing upon their heads. The whole composition is full of life and movement, and—so conservative is childhood—might, but for the costume and



A Dutch Interior.

scene, represent a playground of today. No doubt it represented, with far closer fidelity the playground of the artist's time.

It is this note of literalness—this truth to what lay nearest—that constitutes the chief charm of these illustrations. Many of those to the "Emblems" are quaint with that inventive strangeness and naïve ingenuity which have a fascination apart from technical merit. But, as a rule, the artist is strongest in what he has seen. His lions are more or less heraldic; his crocodiles are badly stuffed; and his salamanders of doubtful actuality. There is no such faltering when he shows us a hammer striking a flint on a cushion, or a pair of snuffers cropping a candle, or the interior of a blacksmith's shop. What applies to the still-life applies equally to the figures. When the subject is a tailor sitting cross-legged in



Formal Dutch Garden of the Seventeenth Century.

his stall, or a woman warming her feet and gazing into the embers, there is no doubt of the reality of the studies. Some of them, indeed, are finished works in *genre*.

What would one not give for such an illustrated copy of Shakespeare! In these pages of Jacob Cats we have the authentic Holland of the seventeenth century:—its vanes and spires and steep-roofed houses; its gardens with their geometric tulip-beds, their formally-clipped alleys and arches, their shining parallelograms of water. Here are its old-fashioned interiors, with the deep fireplaces and queer andirons, the huge four-posters, the prim portraits on the wall, the great brass-clamped coffer and carved *armoires* for the ruffs and starched collars and stiff farthingales of the women. In one picture you may see the careful housewife mournfully inspecting a moth-eaten garment which she has just



"No one can, at the same time, love both Thetis and Galatea."

taken from a chest that Wardour Street might envy; in another she is energetically cuffing the "foolish fat scullion," who has let the spotted coach dog overturn the cauldron at the fire. Here an old crone, with her spectacles on, is cautiously proving the contents of the said cauldron with a fork; here the mistress of the house is peeling pears; here the plump and soft-hearted cheese-wife is entertaining an admirer. Outside there are pictures as vivid. Here are the clumsy leather-topped coach with its masked occupant and stumbling horses; the towed *trekschuit*, with its merry freight, sliding swiftly through the low-lying landscape; the windy mole, stretching seaward, with its flaring beacon fire. Here again in the street is the toy-shop with its open front



A Dutch Tailor's Shop in the Seventeenth Century.

and store of mimic drums and halberds for the martial little burghers; here are the fruiteress with her stall of grapes and melons, the rat-catcher with his string of trophies, the fowler and his clap-net, the furrier with his stock of skins. Many of the designs have also that additional interest which is universal as well as local. Such is the one to the proverb, "Between two stools one comes to the ground," or as Cats has it, "*Nemo potest Thetidem simul et Galatean amare.*" The luckless Philander of the story has been trying to solve the problem but without success. He has been flirting among the sandhills with Thetis, who has her fish upon her head in "ocean-smelling osier;" and now



A Batavian "Marriage à la mode."

Galatea the milkmaid has come suddenly upon them in a hat which looks like an inverted basin with a tuft: and he will probably experience what is high-Dutch for a *mauvais quart d'heure*. Another illustrates as pertinently the adage, "It is ill hunting with unwilling hounds," although the dogs are but a detail in the landscape, and the real moral is pointed by humanity. "Griet," poor soul, shamefaced and ill-at-ease, stands awkwardly by the door-settle, looking away from the other actors in the drama, apparently her suitor and his father. By the purse in her hand we must conclude she is rich; by a certain constraint in her carriage we may perhaps also infer that she is not so well-born as her intended



"Love Asks Return."

It is, in fact, a Batavian "*marriage a la mode*" that is in progress, if such a word may be employed where nothing is progressing. For if the lady is simply passive, the gentleman, whose name is Claes, is violently demonstrative. He resists all efforts of his senior to bring him to the front—gesticulates wildly, and digs his right heel doggedly in the ground. He will none of her, nor all her "brooches, pearls, and owches,"—her gear and household stuff,—her rents and her comings-in.

The round cap and collar of the female figure in this picture, the short-skirt with its rigid folds and dark border,



An Allegory of Life.



Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden.

bear runs backwards and forwards, eager for its prey; but rats are gnawing busily at the tree-trunk and by and by the tree, climber and all, will topple crashing in the flames. Another composition—the frontispiece to the “Coffins for the Living”—takes up two pages, and is even more impressive. The scene is a kind of cemetery with magnificent sepulchral monuments, wherefrom the covers have been lifted so as to exhibit their mouldering tenants. To the right a party of richly-clad Orientals are gazing curiously at a crowned skeleton:—“Where are the riches of Croesus?” On the opposite side of the picture, a personage resembling an Eastern Mage, and a beautiful and majestic woman—perhaps the Queen of Sheba—bend wonderingly over a second tomb:—“Where is the wisdom of Solomon?” Here it is a group of soldiers that is attracted; there a group of heroes. But the main interest centers in front of a lofty canopy,

the sable curtains of which are drawn aside by grinning atomies, discovering a figure more pitiful than any in its forlorn and fleshless impotence:—"Where is the beauty of Helen?" "Was *this* the face that launch'd a thousand ships, and burned the topless towers of Ilium?" Surely a fruitful theme for the gray-haired sage of Sorgh-vliet, when the blast whistled keener through his wind-stripped espaliers, and the dead leaves gathered at the garden borders!

And here we close the great folio. But what a picture-book it must have been in the days when picture-books were fewer! One can imagine the Dutch children poring over it, much as Charles Lamb pored over the queer illustrations in Stackhouse's "History of the Bible." One can even fancy that their minds took a certain haunting after-color or savor from this early study, like the jar which, as Horace says, remembers its first wine. That the volume is a favorite with the distinguished Dutch artist, now naturalized among us, Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema, is, perhaps, not remarkable; nor is it remarkable that (as Mr. Warter relates) it should have attracted the wandering and omnivorous appetite of Southey. But it is surely of special interest that it was among the first art-treasures of Reynolds, who loved it as a boy, and many of whose sketches—"done by Joshua out of pure idleness"—were copied from the gallery of "Vader Cats."

The German Kaiser

II. Impressions of Wolf von Schierbrand*

WILLIAM has often given public utterance to his conviction that the most potent support of his throne is the army. It is not surprising, therefore, that he has steadily aimed at keeping that pillar of his strength perfectly under his own control. In doing this he has made use of every available means. All the year round finds him busy attending parades, manoeuvres, anniversaries of battles, birthdays of sovereign or otherwise distinguished chiefs of a number of his regiments, and delivering speeches, toasts, formal or impromptu addresses, in which he never fails to inculcate precepts and traditions of loyalty and of every other military virtue, seizing, too, opportunities thus afforded him to pay compliments to the heads of allied or friendly nations, or to express other sentiments likely to benefit Germany in her political relations. Above all, though, he fraternizes with the officers of the army at luncheons or banquets given at their barracks, to which he invites himself. His after-dinner remarks on such occasions have often astounded the world, but from his own point of view, that of Commander-in-Chief of the army, they have been highly effective, and have tended to knit still more firmly the bonds which unite the army to his person. Then there is the entire category of rewards and punishments which he, as head of the army, dispenses at will—promotions, orders, and decorations, praise or censure meted out to individuals or bodies in army orders and bulletins, confirmations, revisions or nullifications of sentences imposed by courts-martial. It will easily be understood that these varied and constantly applied means alone suffice to make the influence of the Kaiser over his army an element of surpassing force. But to all this must be added the power he acquires through

*Quoted from "Germany: The Welding of a World Power," by Wolf von Schierbrand. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1902.

his "Military Cabinet." This is a bureau under his exclusive control, whose mission it is to supply him daily, by regular verbal or written reports, with that wealth of personal details about his army, and especially about the corps of officers, which enables him to know at all times the exact spirit and degree of efficiency noticeable in each regiment, even each company or squadron, and which lends to his personal relations with the army a spice of intimacy and comprehensive knowledge which is of enormous value. It is credibly asserted that the Kaiser personally knows half of the 25,000 officers in the German active army.

His "Naval Cabinet," whose scope of duties is similar, is largely responsible for his intimate knowledge of the ships and men composing the German navy. His constant visits to the naval vessels also have a share in this, and it is probably true that he knows every one of the one hundred and twenty-three vessels and 1,500 naval officers under his command. At the regular autumnal manoeuvres of the German navy he has, besides, an opportunity of testing the mettle of his ships and men.

As regards the citizen population, and more particularly the immense corps of government officials, his "Civil Cabinet," of which Herr von Lucanus is the dreaded chief, puts him in a position to acquire a great deal of similarly intimate knowledge about it. Thousands of petitions, letters of thanks, special reports, etc., reach him in the course of every year through this "cabinet" which give him a keen insight into the lives, ambitions, and aims of the middle and higher classes. The peculiar passion for titles and decorations, for which the Germans themselves have coined the word "*Titelsucht*," likewise furnishes the Kaiser with a strong lever by which to turn people at will. Every winter—on January 18th, as a rule—the so-called "*Ordensfest*," or Fete of Decorations, is celebrated at the Berlin court, when between 5,000 and 8,000 newly decorated citizens, drawn from every walk of life, are invited to court, file before the Kaiser and his consort, and are subsequently regaled in a number of the most splendid apartments of the Old

Castle, and affably treated by a large and gorgeously attired body of flunkys. Thus an indelibly sweet and powerful impression is left on the minds of this heterogeneous multitude, largely composed of unsophisticated and intensely loyal denizens of rural districts or smaller towns. The official organ of the empire on the afternoon of that day publishes a special edition, containing on a score of quarto pages the full names, callings, etc., of all these happy persons, together with a minute classification of the decorations and medals awarded, and all the newspapers in the empire reprint the list, wholly or in part. The present Kaiser has used this quite inexpensive but very effective mode of rewarding loyal subjects with steadily increasing lavishness, and has invented a number of new decorations, besides. He indulges the ambition for titles with like generosity and with like effect.

By vastly increasing the splendors of his court the Kaiser has also materially heightened his personal influence. The simple and unostentatious manners and customs prevailing at the Berlin court during the days of William I. have been superseded by an elaborateness of ceremonial, a brilliancy of appointments and costumes, and a display of taste and refined luxury which rival, and in some features even surpass, the elegancies of the Tuileries under Napoleon III. The exterior and interior of Berlin Castle, and of several other royal homes belonging to the Prussian monarchs, have been renovated and embellished, and connoisseurs claim that the so-called White Hall in Berlin Castle, in its new guise, is the most beautiful and chaste extant. The banquets given by the Kaiser on grand days enjoy a deservedly high reputation among European diplomats, and the royal cellars are unequaled today in any capital. The pressure to attend the Berlin court festivities has on account of all this become stronger every year, as the list of festivities has been published by the chief court marshal, and even many distinguished strangers have strenuously exerted themselves to that end. But in like ratio has the Kaiser's tendency increased to render these festivities exclusive.

All these means used by the Kaiser to extend and strengthen his influence on every class of the population are legitimate. But some other means he uses are open to serious objection, for they amount to nothing less than an overriding of the constitution. It was Bismarck who drew up this fundamental instrument, and it contains provisions clearly defining not alone the powers and prerogatives of the Emperor, but also those of the Imperial Chancellor, One of these provisions is to the effect that every public utterance of the Emperor, oral or written, must receive the sanction of the Imperial Chancellor to acquire the character of a government emanation. Without that, such utterances are to be considered merely as private enunciations, having no binding force on the sovereign, the government, or the nation. The constitution provides that every document signed or written by the Emperor in his public capacity must have the counter-signature of the Imperial Chancellor, whereby he, the Chancellor, assumes the responsibility for it toward the nation and its representatives in Bundesrath and Reichstag, and becomes amenable to them. Bismarck in his Memoirs says that the intent was to render the Chancellor alone responsible, he having identified himself with the monarch's act or expression by his signature, and thus "shield" the sovereign; the further inference being that if it becomes manifest at any time that the nation, through the majority of its representatives, disapproves of measures or opinions thus endorsed by the Chancellor, the sovereign has the simple remedy of dismissing the Chancellor and appointing a successor—which would be the pure parliamentary form of government.

This important provision of the German constitution has been practically nullified by the Kaiser for many years past. He has declared himself in favor of projects or pending measures; he has proclaimed a new policy, or an important alteration in an old one; he has launched the ship of state into the troubled waters of a dangerous adventure,

without even first consulting with his Chancellor. This he did throughout the Hohenlohe regime, and he has done it on several occasions since the present Chancellor came into power. The seizure of Kiaochow was a step undertaken not alone without the knowledge of the Chancellor, but directly against his will. If Germany at that time had become involved in war with China, that war would have been due to a flagrant violation of the constitution by the Kaiser. Public declarations have been made scores of times by the Kaiser, condemning or approving men and measures, without previous consultation with his Chancellors. Yet, while thus ignoring the constitution himself, the Kaiser has, when such utterances of his were adversely criticised, taken advantage of the existing very illiberal judicial practice, in prosecuting such critics whom he, on a conspicuous occasion, styled "*Norgler*" (fault-finder), and whom he advised to "shake the dust of the fatherland off their shoes." If these utterances of his had been made with the consent, or over the signature, of the Imperial Chancellor, they would have become fit subjects for criticism within reasonable bounds. But by this doubly unfair proceeding on the Kaiser's part neither the Reichstag nor the nation at large is permitted to pronounce public judgment on his sayings and doings.

Again, the Kaiser has, contrary to the constitution, practically monopolized the direction of the foreign policy of Germany for many years—in fact, ever since the retirement of Bismarck. The empire's foreign policy, by the explicit terms of the constitution, is left wholly to the Chancellor. If the Kaiser be not satisfied with the Chancellor's foreign policy, he can dismiss him. But the Kaiser found it more to his taste to shape the empire's policy entirely according to his own ideas, making the Chancellor, at least in this important respect, a mere figurehead. Bismarck, with whom he first tried these tactics, would not submit and was retired. Caprivi, a soldier before being a statesman, and regarding the Kaiser solely as his commander-in-chief, obeyed blindly. Hohenlohe, who was of a different moral and in-

tellectual fibre, disliked being thus cavalierly treated, and finally resigned. How long von Buelow will submit to this treatment remains to be seen.

It is the personal influence of the Kaiser which is most potent. His forceful personality simply compels attention. For years after his accession millions of Germans stood aloof, ignoring his kaleidoscopic activity, and firmly believing that after he had "sown his wild oats," and after the novelty of the situation into which he had been summoned so unexpectedly had worn off, he would cease his pyrotechnic interference in every phase of public life. But these would-be "indifferents" were forced to abandon their attitude. When, after one of his speeches, often ill-advised, flamboyant and overshooting the mark, but always striking and earnest, the press of the whole world would be ringing with comment, and at every German fireside heated discussions *pro* and *con* would take place, these sober-minded Germans while still condemning his methods, found it impossible to stand supinely aside. The Kaiser, on every weighty problem that came to the surface for solution would split the nation into two hostile camps, stimulating discussion and keeping both adherents and opponents of his views at fever heat. It is this sensational side of his personal influence, probably more than any other, which has been, and is still being, felt most strongly. Into every political campaign in Germany he has thrown firebrands in the shape of mottoes, pithy and apt sayings, sarcastic allusions, or ironical retorts to his adversaries. Every weapon of warfare has been successfully employed by him.

Now and then he has been checkmated, or even defeated outright. The several attempts made by him to bring about anti-Socialist legislation have been foiled. The great Reichstag election of 1898 went strongly against him, and this despite his vigorous interference, and brought an increase of strength to the Socialists. Both the Reichstag and the Diet refused, in the face of the Kaiser's urgings, to pass laws (the so-called "*Lex Heinze*" and "*Lex Arons*") which virtually have throttled the remnant of public and pri-

vate freedom of speech and thought, though in this fight he had the Center with him and nearly the solid Conservative faction. The Diet, on two conspicuous occasions, and notwithstanding the fact that the Kaiser had publicly, repeatedly and in emphatic language pledged himself personally in favor of it, refused to sanction the construction of the Midland Canal.

These are important and far-reaching measures in which he was worsted, but he had a like experience on many minor occasions. A conspicuous instance was the struggle between the Kaiser and the Prince-Regent of Lippe, ruler of a small state comprising but 1,215 square kilometers, with a total population of 139,000. The regent of this petty principality had been, prior to his accession, a mere count of modest means and a major in the Prussian army. Yet in his earnest attempt to unseat this ruler of an unimportant fragment of the empire, the Kaiser was signally defeated; and as his object had been to supplant Prince Ernest by his (the Kaiser's) brother-in-law, Prince Adolph of Schaumburg-Lippe, and as the committee of arbitration deciding against him had been presided over by the Kaiser's friend, the late King Albert of Saxony, this defeat was the more galling.

However, despite occasional rebuffs, the Kaiser, in nine cases out of ten, has had his way, and is likely to have it in the future. His influence today is felt more strongly than that of any other single factor in Germany. In some ways this has been beneficial to Germany. It has led to the adoption of a most comprehensive plan of naval increase. It has infused more enterprise and self-confidence into the nation. It has inaugurated Germany's world policy. Despite the fact that the nation gave undue prominence to sentimental considerations during the Spanish and the Boer wars, and thereby embittered relations, first with this country, and next with England, it has steered the ship of state so cleverly as to lead to the present *rapprochement* with this nation, and to at least a maintenance of correct relations with England. Perhaps, however, the same results might have been obtained

by the Imperial Chancellors, if they had been left untrammelled to the exercise of their constitutional functions.

The Kaiser's influence upon education and upon science in Germany has been great and, in the main, wholesome. He has clearly perceived the urgent need of remodelling the German educational system on new lines—lines more in accord with the requirements of this age of practical things; and his ideas, though at first they met the united opposition of the professional pedagogues of the old school, are now slowly prevailing. In the wide domain of applied science the Kaiser's influence has also wrought a vast amount of good.

But the incalculable harm done by the Kaiser's influence in other fields of public life probably more than balances accounts. For one thing, it has lowered the national standard of political thought and liberty. To all intents and purposes Germany, though nominally enjoying a constitutional form of government, is ruled autocratically. This is a curious instance of political atavism, when the previous history of political development in Germany during the nineteenth century is considered.

On German literary and art life the personal influence of the Kaiser has also been noxious in the highest degree. He has waged, with more or less success, a savage war upon that highly interesting movement known variously as "Secessionist" or "Realistic" and of which, in literature, Hauptmann and Sudermann have been the main standard-bearers, and in art, Böcklin, Liebermann, Klinger, Thoma, Stuck, and others. With all his might he has fought this movement, the most promising Germany has known for a century, and despite its extreme and unwise partisans one powerfully moulding German thought and ideals. In place of it the Kaiser has, so far as lay in his power, substituted tame mediocrity, as strikingly exemplified by his own marble "ancestral gallery" in the Siegesallee in Berlin, and by the bombastic historical drama of Joseph Lauff, the latter owing their very existence to the Kaiser's inspiration.



The Most Photographed Sovereign in Europe in One of His Uniforms.



The Kaiser in yet another Uniform.

But perhaps the most portentous injury, and certainly the most completely achieved, done to German public life by the Kaiser's personal influence, is that inflicted upon the press and periodical literature. Honest expression of opinion, whenever it contravened the Kaiser's ideas and convictions, has been so persistently and severely punished that it may be said to be effectually muzzled. There has never been any regime in Germany, so far as the records go, during which convictions for *lese majeste* and all sorts of press offenses have been even approximately as numerous. All this is not only in consonance with the Kaiser's wishes, but it is in large measure directly due to him, the appointment of the judges forming the highest tribunal in the empire, and the positions leading up to this highest court, being under his control. The Kaiser has never during the fourteen years of his reign pardoned a single one of these offenders against his own dignity, nor even shortened, in any instance, their penalty. Besides, he is on record with many sayings wherein he expressed nothing less than downright hostility to a free press.

In the Kaiser's veins mingle strange and unharmonious elements—the blood of the Hohenzollerns, than which there is none more matter-of-fact in Europe, nor more cool and well disciplined, and the blood of the Guelphs, than which there is none more stubborn, proud and unruly. William II. shows very distinctly this double lineage in his physical as well as his mental make-up. When one keeps this in mind, the discordant qualities of his personal influence, in its baneful as well as its beneficial effects, are more justly appreciated and adjusted.



The Siege and Relief of Leyden

The siege and relief of Leyden in 1573-1574 was one of the most dramatic episodes in the Dutch war of independence. The historian Motley, in his great work, "The Rise of the Dutch Republic," has told the story of this in some of the most thrilling pages of history ever written. The cutting of the dykes by means of which the relieving fleet sailed inland to the very walls of the city may be readily visualized by referring to the old map here reproduced.

According to the advice early given by the Prince of Orange, the citizens [of Leyden] had taken an account of their provisions of all kinds, including the livestock. By the end of June, the city was placed on a strict allowance of food, all the provisions being purchased by the authorities at an equitable price. Half a pound of meat and half a pound of bread was allotted to a full grown man, and to the rest, a due proportion. The city being strictly invested, no communication, save by carrier pigeons, and by a few swift and skilful messengers, called jumpers, was possible. Sorties and fierce combats were, however, of daily occurrence, and a handsome bounty was offered to any man who brought into the city gates the head of a Spaniard. The reward was paid many times, but the population was becoming so excited and so apt, that the authorities felt it dangerous to permit the continuance of these conflicts. Lest the city, little by little, should lose its few disciplined defenders, it was now proclaimed, by sound of church bell, that in future no man should leave the gates.

The Prince had his headquarters at Delft and at Rotterdam. Between those two cities, an important fortress, called Polderwaert, secured him in the control of the alluvial quadrangle, watered on two sides by the Yssel and the Meuse. On the 29th of June, the Spaniards, feeling its value, had made an unsuccessful effort to carry this fort by storm. They had been beaten off, with the loss

of several hundred men, the Prince remaining in possession of the position, from which alone he could hope to relieve Leyden. He still held in his hand the keys with which he could unlock the ocean gates and let the waters in upon the land, and he had long been convinced that nothing could save the city but to break the dykes. * * * He determined that these should be pierced, while, at the same time, the great sluices at Rotterdam, Schiedam, and Delfshaven should be opened. The damage to the fields, villages, and growing crops would be enormous, but he felt that no other course could rescue Leyden, and with it the whole of Holland from destruction. His clear expositions and impassioned eloquence at last overcame all resistance. By the middle of July the estates fully consented to his plan, and its execution was immediately undertaken. "Better a drowned land than a lost land," cried the patriots, with enthusiasm, as they devoted their fertile fields to desolation.

THE "SEA-BEGGARS."

On the 1st of September, Admiral Boisot arrived out of Zealand with a small number of vessels, and with eight hundred veteran sailors. A wild and ferocious crew were those eight hundred Zealanders. Scarred, hacked, and even maimed, in the unceasing conflicts in which their lives had passed; wearing crescents in their caps, with the inscription, "Rather Turkish than Popish;" renowned far and wide, as much for their ferocity as for their nautical skill; the appearance of these wildest of the "Sea-beggars" was both eccentric and terrific. They were known never to give nor to take quarter, for they went to *mortal* combat only, and had sworn to spare neither noble nor simple, neither king, kaiser, nor pope, should they fall into their power.

More than two hundred vessels had been now assembled, carrying generally ten pieces of cannon, with from ten to eighteen oars, and manned with twenty-five hundred veterans, experienced both on land and water. The work was now undertaken in earnest. The distance from Leyden to the outer dyke, over whose ruins the ocean had already been admitted, was nearly fifteen miles. This reclaimed territory, however, was not maintained against the sea by these external barriers alone. The flotilla made its way with ease to the Land-scheiding, a strong dyke within five miles of Leyden, but here its progress was arrested. The approach to the city was surrounded by many strong ramparts, one within the other, by which it was defended against its ancient enemy, the ocean, precisely like the circumvallations by means of which it was now assailed by its more recent enemy, the Spaniard. To enable the fleet, however, to sail over the land, it was necessary to break through this two-fold series of defences. Between the Land-scheiding and

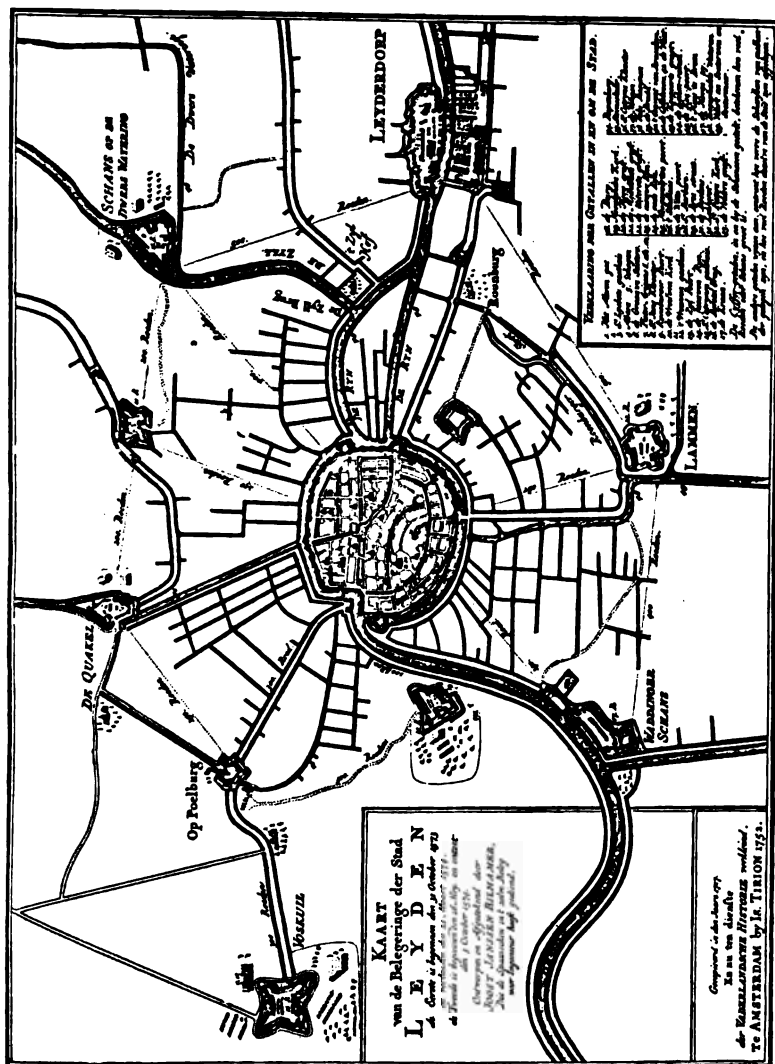
Leyden were several dykes, which kept out the water; upon the level territory, thus encircled, were many villages, together with a chain of sixty-two forts, which completely occupied the land. All these villages and fortresses were held by the veteran troops of the King; the besieging force being about four times as strong as that which was coming to the rescue.

The Prince had given orders that the Land-scheiding, which was still one-and-a-half feet above water, should be taken possession of, at every hazard. On the night of the 10th and 11th of September this was accomplished, by surprise, and in a masterly manner. The few Spaniards who had been stationed upon the dyke were all despatched or driven off and the patriots fortified themselves upon it, without the loss of a man. As the day dawned, the Spaniards saw the fatal error which they had committed in leaving this bulwark so feebly defended, and from two villages which stood close to the dyke, the troops now rushed in considerable force to recover what they had lost. A hot action succeeded, but the patriots had too securely established themselves. They completely defeated the enemy, who retired, leaving hundreds of dead on the field, and the patriots in complete possession of the Land-scheiding.

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HOW THE DYKES WERE TAKEN.

The great dyke having been thus occupied, no time was lost in breaking it through in several places, a work which was accomplished under the very eyes of the enemy. The fleet sailed through the gaps; but, after their passage had been effected in good order, the Admiral found, to his surprise, that it was not the only rampart to be carried. The Prince had been informed, by those who claimed to know the country, that, when once the Land-scheiding had been passed, the water would flood the country as far as Leyden, but the "Green-way," another long dyke, three-quarters of a mile farther inward, now rose at least a foot above the water, to oppose their further progress. Fortunately, by a second and still more culpable carelessness, this dyke had been left by the Spaniards in as unprotected a state as the first had been. Promptly and audaciously Admiral Boisot took possession of this barrier also, levelled it in many places, and brought his flotilla in triumph, over its ruins. Again, however, he was doomed to disappointment. A large mere, called the Freshwater Lake, was known to extend itself directly in his path about midway between the Land-scheiding and the city. To this piece of water, into which he expected to have instantly floated, his only passage lay through one deep canal. The sea which had thus far borne him on, now diffusing itself over a very wide surface, and under the influence of an adverse wind, had become too shallow for his ships. The canal alone was deep



Eighteenth Century Map of Leyden Showing Topography of Country at Time of Siege.

enough, but it led directly towards a bridge, strongly occupied by the enemy. Hostile troops, moreover, to the amount of three thousand occupied both sides of the canal. The bold Boisot, nevertheless, determined to force his passage, if possible. Selecting a few of his strongest vessels, his heaviest artillery, and his bravest sailors, he led the van himself, in a desperate attempt to make his way to the mere. He opened a hot fire upon the bridge, then converted into a fortress, while his men engaged in hand-to-hand combat with a succession of skirmishers from the troops along the canal. After losing a few men, and ascertaining the impregnable position of the enemy, he was obliged to withdraw, defeated, and almost despairing.

A week had elapsed since the great dyke had been pierced, and the flotilla now lay motionless in shallow water, having accomplished less than two miles. The wind, too, was easterly, causing the sea rather to sink than to rise. Everything wore a gloomy aspect, when, fortunately, on the 18th, the wind shifted to the north-west, and for three days blew a gale. The waters rose rapidly, and before the second day was closed the armada was afloat again. Some fugitives from Zoetermeer village now arrived and informed the Admiral that, by making a detour to the right, they could completely circumvent the bridge and the mere. They guided him, accordingly, to a comparatively low dyke, which led between the villages of Zoetermeer and Benthuyzen. A strong force of Spaniards was stationed in each place, but, seized with panic, instead of sallying to defend the barrier, they fled inwardly toward Leyden, and halted at the village of North Aa.

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THE SITUATION AT LEYDEN.

Meantime, the besieged city was at its last gasp. The burghers had been in a state of uncertainty for many days; being aware that the fleet had set forth for their relief, but knowing full well the thousand obstacles which it had to surmount. They had guessed its progress by the illumination from the blazing villages; they had heard its salvos of artillery, on its arrival at North Aa; but since then, all had been dark and mournful again, hope and fear, in sickening alternation, distracting every breast. They knew that the wind was unfavorable, and at the dawn of each day every eye was turned wistfully to the vanes of the steeples. So long as the easterly breeze prevailed, they felt, as they anxiously stood on towers and house-tops, that they must look in vain for the welcome ocean. Yet, while thus patiently waiting, they were literally starving; for even the misery endured at Harlem had not reached that depth and intensity of agony to which Leyden was now reduced. Bread, malt-cake, horse-flesh, had entirely disappeared; dogs, cats, rats, and other vermin, were esteemed luxuries. A small number of cows,

kept as long as possible, for their milk, still remained; but a few were killed from day to day, and distributed in minute proportions, hardly sufficient to support life among the famishing population. * * * The pestilence stalked at noonday through the city, and the doomed inhabitants fell like grass beneath its scythe. From six thousand to eight thousand human beings sank before this scourge alone, yet the people resolutely held out—women and men mutually encouraging each other to resist the entrance of their foreign foe—an evil more horrible than pest or famine.

The missives from Valdez, who saw more vividly than the besieged could do, the uncertainty of his own position, now poured daily into the city, the enemy becoming more prodigal of his vows, as he felt that the ocean might yet save the victims from his grasp. The inhabitants, in their ignorance, had gradually abandoned their hopes of relief, but they spurned the summons to surrender. Leyden was sublime in its despair. A few murmurs were, however, occasionally heard at the steadfastness of the magistrates, and a dead body was placed at the door of the burgomaster, as a silent witness against his inflexibility. A party of the more faint-hearted even assailed the heroic Adrian Van der Werf with threats and reproaches as he passed through the streets. A crowd had gathered around him, as he reached a triangular place in the center of the town, into which many of the principal streets emptied themselves, and upon one side of which stood the church of Saint Pancras, with its high brick tower surmounted by two pointed turrets, and with two ancient lime trees at its entrance. There stood the burgomaster, a tall, haggard, imposing figure, with dark visage, and a tranquil but commanding eye. He waved his broad-leaved felt hat for silence, and then exclaimed, in language which has been almost literally preserved:

"What would ye, my friends? Why do ye murmur that we do not break our vows and surrender the city to the Spaniards? a fate more horrible than the agony which she now endures. I tell you I have made an oath to hold the city, and may God give me strength to keep my oath! I can die but once; whether by your hands, the enemy's, or by the hand of God. My own fate is indifferent to me, not so that of the city intrusted to my care. I know that we shall starve if not soon relieved; but starvation is preferable to the dishonored death which is the only alternative. Your menaces move me not; my life is at your disposal; here is my sword, plunge it into my breast, and divide my flesh among you. Take my body to appease your hunger, but expect no surrender, so long as I remain alive."

The words of the stout burgomaster inspired a new courage in the hearts of those who heard him, and a shout of applause and defiance arose from the famishing but enthusiastic crowd. They left the place, after exchanging new vows of fidelity with their mag-

istrate, and again ascended tower and battlement to watch for the coming fleet.

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THE SEA ASSISTS THE HOLLANDERS.

A violent equinoctial gale, on the night of the 1st and 2nd of October, came storming from the northwest, shifting after a few hours full eight points, and then blowing still more violently from the southwest. The waters of the North Sea were piled in vast masses upon the southern coast of Holland, and then dashed furiously landward, the ocean rising over the earth, and sweeping with unrestrained power across the ruined dykes.

In the course of twenty-four hours, the fleet at North Aa, instead of nine inches, had more than two feet of water. No time was lost. The Kirk-way, which has been broken through according to the Prince's instructions, was now completely overflowed, and the fleet sailed at midnight, in the midst of the storm and darkness. A few sentinel vessels of the enemy challenged them as they steadily rowed towards Zoeterwoude. The answer was a flash from Boissot's cannon, lighting up the black waste of waters. There was a fierce midnight naval battle; a strange spectacle among the branches of those quiet orchards, and with the chimney stacks of half-submerged farm houses rising around the contending vessels. The neighboring village of Zoeterwoude shook with the discharges of the Zealanders' cannon, and the Spaniards assembled in that fortress knew that the rebel Admiral was at last afloat and on his course. The enemy's vessels were soon sunk, their crews hurled into the waves. On went the fleet, sweeping over the broad waters which lay between Zoeterwoude and Zwieten. As they approached some shallows, which led into the great mere, the Zealanders dashed into the sea, and with sheer strength shouldered every vessel through. Two obstacles lay still in their path—the forts of Zoeterwoude and Lammen, distant from the city five hundred and two hundred and fifty yards respectively. Strong redoubts, both well supplied with troops and artillery, they were likely to give a rough reception to the light flotilla, but the panic which had hitherto driven their foes before the advancing patriots, had reached Zoeterwoude. Hardly was the fleet in sight when the Spaniards, in the early morning, poured out from the fortress, and fled precipitately to the left, along a road which led in a westerly direction towards the Hague. Their narrow path was rapidly vanishing in the waves, and hundreds sank beneath the constantly deepening and treacherous flood. The wild Zealanders, too, sprang from their vessels upon the crumbling dyke and drove their retreating foes into the sea. They hurled their harpoons at them, with an accuracy acquired in many a polar chase; they plunged into the waves in the keen pursuit, attacking



The Old Rhine, Leyden, from the Spaniards' Bridge.



Spaniards' Bridge, Leyden. From an old Engraving.



Peter A. van der Werf, the heroic Burgomaster
of Leyden during the Siege.

them with boat-hook and dagger. The numbers who thus fell beneath these corsairs, who neither gave nor took quarter, were never counted, but probably not less than a thousand perished. The rest effected their escape to the Hague.

The first fortress was thus seized, dismantled, set on fire, and passed, and a few strokes of the oars brought the whole fleet close to Lammen. This last obstacle rose formidable and frowning directly across their path. Swarming as it was with soldiers, and bristling with artillery, it seemed to defy the armada either to carry it by storm or to pass under its guns into the city. It appeared that the enterprise was, after all, to founder within sight of the long expecting and expected haven. Boisot anchored his fleet within a respectful distance, and spent what remained of the day in carefully reconnoitering the fort, which seemed only too strong. In conjunction with Leyderdorp, the headquarters of Valdez, a mile and a half distant on the right, and within a mile of the city, it seemed so insuperable an impediment that Boisot wrote in despondent tone to the Prince of Orange. He announced his intention of carrying the fort, if it were possible, on the following morning, but if obliged to retreat, he observed, with something like despair, there would be nothing for it but to wait for another gale of wind. If the waters should rise sufficiently to enable them to make a wide detour, it might be possible, if, in the meantime, Ley-



Don Franciscus de Valdez, Commander of the Spanish Forces which Besieged Leyden.



Jean van der Does of Noordwyk, in Command of Leyden during the Siege.

den did not starve or surrender, to enter its gates from the opposite side.

Meantime, the citizens had grown wild with expectation. A dove had been dispatched by Boisot, informing them of his precise position, and a number of citizens accompanied the burgomaster, at nightfall, toward the tower of Hengist—"Yonder," cried the magistrate, stretching out his hand toward Lammen, "yonder behind that fort are bread and meat, and brethren in thousands. Shall all this be destroyed by the Spanish guns, or shall we rush to the rescue of our friends?" "We will tear the fortress to pieces with our teeth and nails," was the reply, "before the relief, so long expected, shall be wrested from us." It was resolved that a sortie, in conjunction with the operations of Boisot, should be made against Lammen with the earliest dawn. Night descended upon the scene, a pitch dark night, full of anxiety to the Spaniards, to the armada, to Leyden. Strange sights and sounds occurred at different moments to bewilder the anxious sentinels. A long procession of lights issuing from the fort was seen to flit across the black face of the waters, in the dead of night, and the whole of the city wall, between the Cow-gate and the Tower of Burgundy, fell with a loud crash. The horror-struck citizens thought that the Spaniards were upon them at last; the Spaniards imagined the noise to indicate a



The Sea Gate, Leyden. From an old Engraving.



The Witte Gate, Leyden. From an old Engraving.

desperate sortie of the citizens. Everything was vague and mysterious.

Day dawned at length, after a feverish night, and the Admiral prepared for the assault. Within the fortress reigned a death-like stillness which inspired a sickening suspicion. Had the city, indeed, been carried in the night; had the massacre already commenced; had all this labor and audacity been expended in vain? Suddenly a man was descried wading breast-high through the water from Lammen towards the fleet, while at the same time, one solitary boy was seen to wave his cap from the summit of the fort. After a moment of doubt, the happy mystery was solved. The Spaniards had fled, panic-stricken, during the darkness. Their position would still have enabled them, with firmness, to frustrate the enterprise of the patriots, but the hand of God, which had sent the ocean and the tempest to the deliverance of Leyden, had struck her enemies with terror likewise. The lights which had been seen moving during the night were the lanterns of the retreating Spaniards, and the boy who was now waving his triumphant signal from the battlements had alone witnessed the spectacle. So confident was he in the conclusion to which it led him that he had volunteered at daybreak to go hither and alone. The magistrates, fearing a trap, hesitated for a moment to believe the truth, which soon, however, became quite evident. Valdez, flying himself from Leyderdorp, had ordered Colonel Borgia to retire with all his troops from Lammen. Thus, the Spaniards had retreated at the very moment that an extraordinary accident had laid bare a whole side of the city for their entrance. The noise of the wall, as it fell, only inspired them with fresh alarm; for they believed that the citizens had sallied forth in the darkness, to aid the advancing flood in the work of destruction. All obstacles being now removed, the fleet swept by Lammen and entered the city on the morning of the 3rd of October. Leyden was relieved.

THE FLEET REACHES THE CITY.

The quays were lined with the famishing population, as the fleet rowed through the canals, every human being who could stand coming forth to greet the preservers of the city. Bread was thrown from every vessel among the crowd. The poor creatures, who, for two months had tasted no wholesome human food, and who had literally been living within the jaws of death, snatched eagerly the blessed gift, at last too liberally bestowed. Many choked themselves to death, in the greediness with which they devoured their bread; others became ill with the effects of plenty thus suddenly succeeding starvation;—but these were isolated cases, a repetition of which was prevented. The Admiral, stepping ashore, was welcomed by the magistracy, and a solemn procession was immediately formed. Magistrates and citizens, wild Zealanders, emaciated burgher guards,

sailors, soldiers, women, children,—nearly every living person within the walls, all repaired without delay to the great church, stout Admiral Boisot leading the way. The starving and heroic city, which had been so firm in its resistance to an earthly king, now bent itself in humble gratitude before the King of kings. After prayers, the whole vast congregation joined in the thanksgiving hymn. Thousands of voices raised the song, but few were able to carry it to its conclusion, for the universal emotion, deepened by the music, became too full for utterance. The hymn was abruptly suspended, while the multitude wept like children. The scene of honest pathos terminated, the necessary measures for distributing the food and relieving the sick were taken by the magistracy.

The Vesper Hour*

(Baccalaureate Sermon Delivered to the C. L. S. C. Class of 1908, Chautauqua, N. Y., August 16, 1908.)

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

GOD has revealed himself to humanity in nature, in biography, in history, in that unique personality, Jesus Christ, in the preparatory civilizations that paved the way for him, and finally, as a key to all the rest in that great body of literature,—historic, poetic, prophetic,—clearly, spiritually, subjectively—the holy Bible.

God also now reveals himself in the personal life through the direct and unconscious influence of the believer, in the acts of the saints creating as they do the garb of personal character,—“fine linen, bright and pure, the righteous acts of the saints.” Here is high art, the genius of goodness filling the face with radiance and the conduct with righteous acts. This is the true salvation which is working itself out in every day goodness, in the “beauty of holiness.”

In this life of personal loveliness the main point is not the assurance of personal safety nor is it in “being happy.”

*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

It is in an energy of life that is wholly self-forgetting. There is the life of the whirlpool which draws everything unto itself,—there is the life of the fountain which gives everything that it has as a blessing to others. It is a life of service full of the “acts” of sympathy illustrated by Him who “went about doing good.”

This is the secret of a true life; human affection working itself out in deeds of service—acts that flow from a warm heart and that tell in permanent influence and power. When in the physical world we are under clouds and darkness, no sun in sight, we nevertheless feel warm and comfortable because the sun really is, although unseen, and in his place beyond the clouds is radiant and potent, holding us to our solar center and giving us light and heat. So under all systems of belief genuine souls are held by Christ even though they may never have heard his name pronounced. We may not yet be sound in theology but if we be sound in motive, genuine in spirit, and diligent in endeavor in due time we shall be established in a true theology. We may not at first understand the solar system but even then we may enjoy and be blessed by the sunlight.

But it is important that we should think of Christ and not of self. Therefore we say: Don't make or think too much of yourself; think of God and forget yourself. Never mind your moods of feeling. Let your aspirations and your motives alone as much as possible. The less you think about them as an end the more you will have of the joy and strength of life and the better you will serve men. Aim to be, for character is at the root of everything; but aim to be not for the sake of being but for the sake of doing—of serving. Be that you may bless. Remember that the shortest route to insanity and abnormality is too great solicitude about self, and about self in the future. The highest mission of the church is not safety for the future but health—soundness, sanity in the present, out of which spring the “righteous acts of the saints.” The normal Christian life is, of course, personal, but it is so for the sake of service. A man

clothes himself with apparatus for diving but he does not thus array himself for the sake of good looks nor for personal comfort. It is that he may rescue others from danger or by his researches in the deep sea contribute to science and the safety of society. The church exists not to weave white robes for saints or twine crowns into form but to help—to make good citizens, useful neighbors, secure the enactment of wholesome laws, good government, a higher civilization that individuals may live not for themselves but for society—not for the new Jerusalem yonder in some remote star but the new Jerusalem coming down from heaven to establish itself on earth.

The love of the beautiful is a divinely inspired passion but it is the beautiful in every-day life whether in kitchen or cathedral. I do covet high art in church life—not through ecclesiastical art based on medieval theories of church, conformities to out-worn and petrified liturgies, but the art of the present day with today's sunshine, with the freshness of the wind of today out of the north, the church building a place of cleanliness, neatness, beauty, simplicity, with suggestions of today's civilization and with adaptation to today's demands. I covet for the church today the noble art of worship in which are silence, thoughtfulness, reverence, a thirst for truth and self-sacrificing devotion to all forms of philanthropy. My ideal church service embraces the dignity and propriety of the Episcopalian, the ardor of the Methodist, and the charming self-control and silence of the Quaker.

It is not culture but character that counts. It is not graceful manners but the grace-full spirit. It is not familiarity with wide ranges of literature but fellowship with the Spirit of all wisdom. It is not merely tact and good taste in social fellowship but unselfish love, and patience that has a smile to add to its submission and endurance. What is most beautiful is designed to be most useful. The graces of personal character are means of grace to others. There is a beauty of holiness. There are artists in the realm of grace—dealing not with brush and pigments, not with the

tools of architects and builders nor with the chisel and polish of the sculptor—but adding day after day faith, virtue, knowledge, temperance, patience, godliness, brotherly kindness, charity. There is a fine embroidery of contentment and self-forgetfulness and genuine love for folks. Happy is the home and noble is the social circle where such dress and drapery are found. Very soon in such homes voices that before were harsh become soft and sweet. Love never talks of things that make for confusion and discord. And its kitchen-tones are always full of music. To be a genuine lady in the kitchen is the very perfection of Christian art. It reminds one of Bethany and Mary and Martha and the Master. The woman who by her servants is both respected and beloved is entitled to a lofty place in truly Christian society.

As every drop of water is created and controlled by the mysterious force we call gravitation, as the atmosphere penetrates and permeates it as delicately and perfectly as though it were the only form of matter for the benefit of which the atmosphere existed, as the sun applying the most delicate ray of its light to that tiny globule of water fills it with beauty and glory as though the sun existed for the sole purpose of making that little thing a beauty and a glory in the eyes of men so we are justified in accepting the words of Holy Writ concerning the significance and value of a single human life. The sparrow that falls does not fall beyond or without the Heavenly Father's knowledge and care. He counts the hairs of the head. He makes all the tiny things that men need the microscope to discover. With Him nothing is so insignificant as to be cast carelessly aside. He cares for the minute, the unimportant, the microscopic, even "the balancings of the clouds are the wondrous workings of Him who is perfect in knowledge." The man is to be congratulated who carries this faith into his own everyday life. God is our Father. He knoweth our frame, our temperament, our weak points, our antecedents, our limitations, the strain of bad blood in us, the play of circum-

stances before we know enough to avoid or resist. He knows the circumstances of long ago out of which the conditions of today have come. And He gives us a word of Holy Writ—a whole chapter of words as these,—“Casting all your care on God for He careth for you;” “Happy is he that hath the God of Jacob for his help, whose hope is in the Lord his God.” It is a great thing, a wonderful thing—this fact of an ever-active, ever-loving brother-like Father of our spirits who knows us all—each one of us, the weakest, the most simple, the most reckless and foolish and obdurate of us all, and who loves and longs to have us come back to Him with penitence for the past and a brave purpose for the future.

In the ideal life nothing is so slight or trifling that we can refuse to give it attention. The insignificant, if it be by God's appointment, is stupendous. The tiny dewdrop really represents the mighty force of gravitation and reflects the glory of the sun. Do not despise the one tiny drop of dew. God does not. His great servants, gravitation and the sun, respect, conserve, and glorify a drop of dew. When it disappears it is not destroyed. It is somewhere again sometime to tremble and glow and bless. You dare not despise anything. You dare not neglect anything. Recognize the immensity and the relation of the Master to these immensities and whoever, whatever you are, remember you are face to face with the fact and force of Omnipotent energy, the energy of love. The slightest action sustains widest relationships. The immensities are made up of the infinitesimals. And every little thing has its place and mission. The thorn in the flesh—the annoyance, hindrances, vexations of life by which what we call “good” seems to be reduced, and what we account “enjoyment” is diminished—all have a beneficent mission. Earth may crowd you with care but Heaven will crown you with grace and glory. How many of the factors that make for personality we have had no share in creating or introducing into our lives. Pre-natal influences, parental qualities imparted to us from a long

line of ancestors; carelessness of ignorant or silly women during those delicate and important months of the new life that "throbs beneath the mother's heart;" a false and often a fatal idea of delicacy and propriety; the power of example; the vast power of "unconscious influence" during the early years of life; the earliest educative processes of nursery and fireside; the first intimate associates; the pictures on the wall, the tones of voice in habitual intercourse; the sharpness of uncontrolled temper; the effects of a variable policy in government of the poor child, never able to determine which it is safest to do. How important that at home we should find always "the righteous acts of the saints" arraying personalities and draping walls with "fine linen bright and pure."

There is a great deal of beauty that is, as the old phrase puts it "only skin deep." It is selfishness in silken robes. It is leprosy powdered, or painted in the colors of health. Decorative art may make very cheap paper look like satin. And there are tricks of politeness and courtesy among very unreal people deceiving the very elect—although not for long. Alas for the home they weaken and corrupt!

I covet for the church noble art in her services with a recognition not so much of yesterday's ideals and customs as of tomorrow's need and today's opportunity—a service full of reverence, beauty, and simplicity in harmony with the thought of the age we live in. I covet for the church the high ideals of art in personal character, as needed by our modern times. In all this ideal life of the church the divine leading does not involve freedom from exposure to pain and affliction. Even when God's hand holds ours it does not render impossible the "thorn in the flesh," the "decay" of "the outward man" and being "weighed down exceedingly beyond our power" as Paul says he was. Physicians must visit professionally the homes of godly men and women. And all the undertakers' bills are not sent exclusively to the homes of sinners. Learn the high art of submission to and serenity under the Divine discipline. Take what He sends

with a smile and you will see through the veil that for once hides his face—a smile in response;—the smile of a mother who knows that the requirement so hard just now to bear means for tomorrow perfect acquiescence, and the next day rapture. Do not form but avoid the habit of criticism. Think of folks with good will. Take for granted that other people are as honest and as full of good will as you yourself are. Do not be a hornet. Be a busy bee but don't sting. Scatter words of charity and smiles of good will everywhere and every day. A soft answer may hush into silence every wild wave of wrath and this will be your way of following Christ whose "Peace be still" on the tumultuous Galilee is today one of the sweetest memories of his life.

Dear members of the Class of 1908, learn to think of God as the great artist who is ingenious and persistent in his endeavors to adorn you, each and all with "the beauty of holiness," "the meek and quiet spirit," "the righteous acts of saints," that "fine linen bright and pure." "He careth for you" at least as much as the sun that glorifies a dewdrop and then takes it up into the infinite to be forever a part of this great universe. Are you under the limitations of God's loving providence? Do you sometimes regret that you are not physically beautiful? Does your awkwardness by your sad self-consciousness now and then make you even more awkward? Are you over-sensitive through the very delicacy of your nervous organization? Was reputation your idol and has God allowed it to be shattered or at least shadowed? And is there a basis, even a slight basis of fact as a foundation for an ungenerous rumor? Are you ambitious for yourself or your best beloved and are there barriers in the way of its gratification? Has an insidious disease in yourself or in one you love better than you love self given throb or ache or started a fear you cannot quiet? Does some other "thorn in the flesh," or hint of disaster in the home or business life give you anxiety? Let me remind you that God careth for you. He cares for a sparrow. He puts his wisdom and power and glory into a dewdrop. No atom of mat-

ter that He made shall ever be lost. His providence never ceases. His love never faileth. His purposes are lofty and royal. He would array you in "fine linen bright and pure." He would fill your life with righteous deeds and make some soul sing a psalm of praise in heaven because of the divine grace He put into your soul.

Come to Him. Open your soul to Him and say, "Oh God possess me!" Rest in Him. Wait for Him. Serve Him. And do all this—Now !

Famous European Short Stories

The Three Hermits*

By Leo Tolstoy.

"And in praying use not vain repetitions as the Gentiles do: for they think that they shall be heard for their much speaking. Be not therefore like unto them: for your Father knoweth what things ye have need of, before ye ask Him."—*Matt. vi, 7, 8.*

A BISHOP was sailing from Archangel to the Solovétsk Monastery; and on the same vessel were a number of pilgrims on their way to visit the shrines at that place. The voyage was a smooth one. The wind favorable, and the weather fair. The pilgrims lay on deck, eating, or sat in groups talking to one another. The Bishop, too, came on deck, and as he was pacing up and down, he noticed a group of men standing near the prow and listening to a fisherman, who was pointing to the sea and telling them something. The Bishop stopped, and looked in the direction in which the man was pointing. He could see nothing, however, but the sea glistening in the sunshine. He drew nearer to listen, but when the man saw him, he took off his cap and was silent. The rest of the people also took off their caps, and bowed.

"Do not let me disturb you, friends," said the Bishop.

*An old legend current in the Volga district. From "Folk-Tales Retold." Written by Tolstoy in 1886.

The captain was sent for and came.

"I should like to see these hermits," said the Bishop. "Could I not be rowed ashore?"

The captain tried to dissuade him.

"Of course it could be done," said he, "but we should lose much time. And if I might venture to say so to your Grace, the old men are not worth your pains. I have heard say that they are foolish old fellows, who understand nothing, and never speak a word, any more than the fish in the sea."

"I wish to see them," said the Bishop, "and I will pay you for your trouble and loss of time. Please let me have a boat."

There was no help for it; so the order was given. The sailors trimmed the sails, the steersman put up the helm, and the ship's course was set for the island. A chair was placed at the prow for the Bishop, and he sat there, looking ahead. The passengers all collected at the prow, and gazed at the island. Those who had the sharpest eyes could presently make out the rocks on it, and then a mud hut was seen. At last one man saw the hermits themselves. The captain brought a telescope and, after looking through it, handed it to the Bishop.

"It's right enough. There are three men standing on the shore. There, a little to the right of that big rock."

The Bishop took the telescope, got it into position, and he saw the three men: a tall one, a shorter one, and one very small and bent, standing on the shore and holding each other by the hand.

The captain turned to the Bishop.

"The vessel can get no nearer in than this, your Grace. If you wish to go ashore, we must ask you to go in the boat while we anchor here."

The cable was quickly let out, the anchor cast, and the sails furled. There was a jerk, and the vessel shook. Then a boat having been lowered, the oarsmen jumped in, and the Bishop descended the ladder and took his seat. The

men pulled at their oars, and the boat moved rapidly towards the island. When they came within a stone's throw, they saw three old men: a tall one with only a mat tied round his waist; a shorter one in a tattered peasant coat, and a very old one bent with age and wearing an old cassock—all three standing hand in hand.

The oarsmen pulled in to the shore, and held on with the boathook while the Bishop got out.

The old men bowed to him, and he gave them his benediction, at which they bowed still lower. Then the Bishop began to speak to them.

"I have heard," he said, "that you, godly men, live here saving your own souls, and praying to our Lord Christ for your fellow men. I, an unworthy servant of Christ, am called, by God's mercy, to keep and teach His flock. I wished to see you, servants of God, and to do what I can to teach you, also."

The old men looked at each other smiling, but remained silent.

"Tell me," said the Bishop, "what you are doing to save your souls, and how you serve God on this island."

The second hermit sighed, and looked at the oldest, the very ancient one. The latter smiled and said:

"We do not know how to serve God. We only serve and support ourselves, servant of God."

"But how do you pray to God?" asked the Bishop.

"We pray in this way," replied the hermit. "Three are ye, three are we, have mercy upon us."

And when the old man said this, all three raised their eyes to heaven, and repeated:

"Three are ye, three are we, have mercy upon us!"

The Bishop smiled.

"You have evidently heard something about the Holy Trinity," said he. "But you do not pray aright. You have won my affection, godly men. I see you wish to please the Lord, but you do not know how to serve Him. That is not the way to pray; but listen to me, and I will teach you.

I will teach you, not a way of my own, but the way in which God in the Holy Scriptures has commanded all men to pray to Him."

And the Bishop began explaining to the hermits how God had revealed Himself to men; telling them of God the Father, and God the Son, and God the Holy Ghost.

"God the Son came down on earth," said he, "to save men, and this is how He taught us all to pray. Listen, and repeat after me: 'Our Father.'"

And the first old man repeated after him, "Our Father," and the second said, "Our Father," and the third said, "Our Father."

"Which art in Heaven," continued the Bishop.

The first hermit repeated, "Which art in heaven," but the second blundered over the words, and the tall hermit could not say them properly. His hair had grown over his mouth so that he could not speak plainly. The very old hermit, having no teeth, also mumbled indistinctly.

The Bishop repeated the words again, and the old men repeated them after him. The Bishop sat down on a stone, and the old men stood before him, watching his mouth, and repeating the words as he uttered them. And all day long the Bishop labored, saying a word twenty, thirty, a hundred times over, and the old men repeated it after him. They blundered, and he corrected them, and made them begin again.

The Bishop did not leave off till he had taught them the whole of the Lord's prayer so that they could not only repeat it after him, but could say it by themselves. The middle one was the first to know it, and to repeat the whole of it alone. The Bishop made him say it again and again, and at last the others could say it too.

It was getting dark, and the moon was appearing over the water, before the Bishop rose to return to the vessel. When he took leave of the old men, they all bowed down to the ground before him. He raised them, and kissed each of them, telling them to pray as he had taught them.

Then he got into the boat and returned to the ship.

And as he sat in the boat and was rowed to the ship he could hear the three voices of the hermits loudly repeating the Lord's prayer. As the boat drew near the vessel their voices could no longer be heard, but they could still be seen in the moonlight, standing as he had left them on the shore, the shortest in the middle, the tallest on the right, the middle one on the left. As soon as the Bishop had reached the vessel and got on board, the anchor was weighed and the sails unfurled. The wind filled them, and the ship sailed away, and the Bishop took a seat in the stern and watched the island they had left. For a time he could still see the hermits, but presently they disappeared from sight, though the island was still visible. At last it too vanished, and only the sea was to be seen, rippling in the moonlight.

The pilgrims lay down to sleep, and all was quiet on deck. The Bishop did not wish to sleep, but sat alone at the stern, gazing at the sea where the island was no longer visible, and thinking of the good old men. He thought how pleased they had been to learn the Lord's prayer; and he thanked God for having sent him to teach and help such godly men.

So the Bishop sat, thinking, and gazing at the sea where the island had disappeared. And the moonlight flickered before his eyes, sparkling, now here, now there, upon the waves. Suddenly he saw something white shining on the bright path which the moon cast across the sea. Was it a seagull, or the little gleaming sail of some small boat? The Bishop fixed his eyes on it, wondering.

"It must be a boat sailing after us," thought he, "but it is overtaking us very rapidly. It was far, far away a minute ago, but now it is much nearer. It cannot be a boat, for I can see no sail; but whatever it may be, it is following us, and catching us up."

And he could not make out what it was. Not a boat, nor a bird, nor a fish! It was too large for a man, and

besides a man could not be out there in the midst of the sea. The Bishop rose, and said to the helmsman:

"Look there, what is that, my friend? What is it?" the Bishop repeated, though he could now see plainly what it was—the three hermits running upon the water, all gleaming white, their grey beards shining, and approaching the ship as quickly as though it were not moving.

The steersman looked, and let go the helm in terror.

"Oh Lord! The hermits are running after us on the water as though it were dry land!"

The passengers hearing him, jumped up, and crowded to the stern. They saw the hermits coming along hand in hand, and the two outer ones beckoning the ship to stop. All three were gliding along upon the water without moving their feet. Before the ship could be stopped, the hermits had reached it, and raising their heads, all three as with one voice, began to say:

"We have forgotten your teaching, servant of God. As long as we kept repeating it we remembered, but when we stopped saying it for a time, a word dropped out, and now it has all gone to pieces. We can remember nothing of it. Teach us again."

The Bishop crossed himself, and leaning over the ship's side, said:

"Your own prayer will reach the Lord, men of God. It is not for me to teach you. Pray for us sinners."

And the Bishop bowed low before the old men; and they turned and went back across the sea. And a light shone until daybreak on the spot where they were lost to sight.



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THE CLASS OF 1908 AT CHAUTAUQUA.

Through four years of reading and five years of class gatherings at Chautauqua, the members of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1908 steadily approached the consummation at Chautauqua of their "college outlook." There were more than a hundred who came and they were men and women of varied experiences and opportunities, typical of the larger number of their class in the outside world who could not be with them to celebrate Recognition Day. Much thought and labor had been given to plans for this graduating day by the committees who had met in previous years and early in the season the indefatigable class secretary, Miss S. E. Ford, called the members together and in the absence of Professor Schmucker, Mr. Henry W. Sage assumed the responsibilities of presiding officer. Much was made of the social life of the Class. Committees called upon members as soon as they reached Chautauqua, readers recounted their four years' experiences to their fellow classmates, and each member was eager to share in all class undertakings. The beautiful Tennyson banner secured through the help of Professor and Mrs. Schmucker, was unveiled, and at this time, one of the older members, Mr. Elias B. Thompson, recited for the class their poem, "Ulysses." It was discovered that certain



St. Paul's Grove and the Hall of Philosophy.



Representatives of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1908 "Passing the Arches" at Chaurauqua.



Flower Girls on Recognition Day, 1908.



A Group of C. L. S. C. Graduates of 1908 on the steps of the Hall of Philosophy.



Rallying Day Reception in the Hall of Philosophy.

other members of the class had also committed the poem to memory and these were honored by their admiring classmates with the Chautauqua salute! A very acceptable addition to the furnishings of the 1908 Class room was the fine portrait of Tennyson by the famous etcher, M. Rajon, which was presented to the class by Miss Una Jones of Stittville, New York. Miss Jones had followed many an elusive clue in pursuit of a suitable portrait and the members of the class repeatedly expressed their appreciation of this work of art. At one of the '08 "at homes," Chancellor Vincent gave them words of congratulation and counsel, inspired as he always is by a C. L. S. C. graduating class. His theme was the old one which he makes ever new, that the mature mind has powers of interpretation unknown to youth and that the bodily life here even of threescore years and ten marks but the dawn of the future growth of the spirit. Miss Spencer, the authority of the "Studies in American Painting" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, chanced also to be present and gave a suggestive talk on the possibilities of art in daily life. Baccalaureate Sunday brought the never to be forgotten sermon by the Chancellor and in the evening the Class Vigil in the Hall in the Grove under the Athenian Watch Fires. The service comes to each class with new meaning. Again the class poem was read, this time by Dr. Schmucker, Mr. Sage offered a prayer, and Dr. Hurlbut closed the Vigil with the beautiful lines from Morte D'Arthur, a reminder that "the old order changeth."

Preparations for Recognition Day found many committees at work. The letters for the class motto and name were prepared and the unexpected contribution of a thousand paper roses for decorations was revealed to the delighted surprise of the class. This very ingenious plan had been worked out during the year by Miss Florence E. Harpham who had arranged to have the roses made by some friendly workers during the winter. The committees were thus enabled to use their 1908 emblem with great

freedom. The class took pride in going through the gate on Recognition Day with its quota toward Alumni Hall entirely paid and what was quite unusual, raised also a sufficient amount to cover the tablet placed in the Hall of Philosophy, and unveiled at the Recognition Exercises. The Recognition Address by President Henry Churchill King of Oberlin was a delightful experience to many readers who heard for the first time the author of one of their Chautauqua books. Dr. King's "Rational Living" they had studied and practiced during their four years of reading. The conferring of diplomas by the Chancellor took place in the afternoon when many friends of the graduates gathered to see the unique ceremony. The final rally of the class was at the Alumni banquet in the evening when song and story interspersed with class cheers in varied keys betokened the irrepressible spirits of the S. H. G.

The following letter of greeting from Dr. E. E. Hale, one of the C. L. S. C. Counselors, was read by Dr. Hurlbut:

Will you give my regards to the Tennyson Class on Recognition Day. It brings back to me the day when I received my degree as Master of Arts. Tennyson's poems, in the first American edition were just published. I quote the lines in my address which have since become so familiar—

"Through the shadow of the world, we sweep
into the wider Day
Better fifty years of Europe than
a cycle of Cathay."

That was in 1842—and the next fifty years made a fine object lesson.

Always yours,

EDWARD E. HALE.

1883—"THE VINCENT CLASS."

It was '83's turn to celebrate its twenty-fifth anniversary this year. The class though somewhat larger in its original enrollment than that of '82 seemed to draw from a more distant territory and its representation at Chautauqua has been comparatively small. But they are a band of choice spirits, these '83's, and their Class Cottage which they share with the '85's has always been a unique place where on reception night some original devices are quite certain to appear. At the anniversary meeting of the class on Rec-

ognition Day, letters were read from absent members, among them one from Col. B. P. Pepper of Memphis, Tenn., who said, "The old Class of '83 has a cordial place in my heart and I feel that the work done during the progress of our studies has been invaluable to me. I would not give up the memory and the results of it for any consideration. I feel that no movement in many decades has been a greater source of blessing to wide areas of our country." At the annual class reception on Tuesday night, Chancellor Vincent made a brief address of congratulation to the '83's, who responded with a skilfully worded but seemingly spontaneous cheer, so successfully had they learned to conjure with their name "Vincent." At the Recognition Day Exercises in the Hall of Philosophy the '83 tablet was the first of the class tablets to be dedicated this year.

THE VICENNIAL OF '88.

With the enthusiasm which characterizes Chautauqua graduate reunions, the 88's came up to their twentieth. Casting about for some novel way in which to commemorate their anniversary, a "vicennial breakfast" was proposed as being the most fitting time when the '88's and their guests might "invite their souls" ere the distractions of the day should begin. The result fully justified the expectations of the class. Alumni Hall for the first time echoed to the "sounds of revelry" in the early morning while just across the park the beautiful Aula Christi, shimmering in the morning light, lent its presence to the scene as the guests came and went. On another occasion the members of the class gathered to read letters of greeting from various members and the recent death of a prominent member of the class, Mr. Walton N. Ellis of Brooklyn, N. Y., was recorded. Mr. Ellis was at the time of his death supervisor of music in the Board of Education of Greater New York and earlier in his career director of music at Plymouth Church and assistant to Mr. Frank Damrosch in the People's Choral Society of Manhattan. For a number of years he directed the chorus at Chautauqua during the first half of the

session and gave himself enthusiastically to the work of the C. L. S. C. His cheery presence was recalled by many classmates.

The following letter from the Class President, Dr. A. E. Dunning, will be read with interest by many '88's and others who could not be present:

"My Dear Mrs. Teller:

"The Class of '88, numerous and strong, and many of them youthful in the early days have become few in number and bowed with the weight of years. Then my children were with me and none of them had even gone to college. Now my children and children-in-law are graduates of seven different colleges and universities and I have grandchildren around me. . . . If there are still a half dozen of the Plymouth Rock class with you, give each one my love. I said recently to a friend of mine: 'We are growing old.' 'Yes,' he said cheerfully, 'but it grows better every year.' If the surviving members of '88 can all say that, then we as a C. L. S. C. Class will continue to stand at the head of the procession on Recognition Day and say proudly 'Let us be seen by our deeds.'

"Affectionately yours,

"A. E. DUNNING"

THE C. L. S. C. AT CHAUTAUQUA.

Nature lent to Chautauqua her friendliest mood this year and the long summery days with occasional showers and only a touch of the intense heat made a season's record almost unparalleled in the annals of Chautauqua summers. The C. L. S. C. season was characterized by the usual activities, with perhaps a growing tendency toward social gatherings. Rallying Day brought all C. L. S. C. members and their friends together at the opening of the August program and the morning meeting with brief addresses introduced by President Vincent was full of suggestion. Professor Graham Taylor referred to the influence of Chautauqua as he had met it in many parts of the country; Miss Georgie L. Hopkins of the Lithia Springs Chautauqua, gave some glimpses of the work of that important gathering; Mr. Blichfeldt of the Extension Office at Chautauqua, contrasted with the field work the privileges of those who, to use the Scriptural phrase, "tarry at home with the stuff" during the year; Mr. Bray of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, related several incidents of his recent European trip which bore upon the

coming year's study of Modern Europe, and Miss Kimball summed up certain of the comments made by C. L. S. C. readers upon the course of the past year. Chancellor Vincent closed the hour by reminding his hearers that

"The best thing the C. L. S. C. can do is not to place on shelves books that have been read, nor to frame diplomas to which seals have been added, nor to give facility of speech in parlor circles, valuable as this may be. Its best service, he said, is in creating in the individual that mystic indefinable quality called atmosphere, which people feel when they approach us and which is the product of character at the root. The development of personal character through such study as it provides, tones up the individual, enabling him to be genuine and his true self. This he called the *sanctum sanctorum* of the C. L. S. C."

In the afternoon the usual Rallying Day Reception was held in the Hall of Philosophy where different sections of the country were indicated by gay colored banners and characteristic decorations. These, against a background of green boughs massed between the columns made an effective setting for the various groups who received their friends in the fashion of the South, or the West, or New England, or elsewhere. The "Wide, Wide World" booth gave the C. L. S. C. an opportunity to welcome many visiting missionaries who, whether actual members or not, were looked upon as representative of the C. L. S. C. membership in foreign lands.

Throughout the season C. L. S. C. Round Tables brought frequently to notice the attractive features of the coming Modern European Year. Professor Judd of Yale University, spoke on Student Life in Germany, Dr. Zick of New York, on German Social Customs, Fraulein Rau of Oberlin, on Types of German Cities, President Vincent on the C. L. S. C. book, "Foundations of Modern Europe," President Moffatt of Washington and Jefferson College, on The Church in France, and Miss Meddie Hamilton, representing four Western Chautauquas, on the work of those Assemblies. Many other features of the program bore constant reference to the subjects of next year's course. Readings in European literature by Mrs. Emily M. Bishop and Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker tended to awaken a widespread interest in the study of European masterpieces, and Profes-

sor C. F. Lavell, well known to Chautauqua readers, gave a fine series of lectures on Modern Europe.

THE NEW FRESHMAN CLASS.

Naturally the new C. L. S. C. Class of 1912 was stimulated by the prevailing atmosphere. The meetings of other classes created a sort of contagion and by Recognition Day when the pageant of graduation exercises seemed to put the finishing touches upon irresolution, the class had rolled up a large membership. Miss Hopkins, whose experience at other Chautauquas made her services invaluable in guiding the 1912s aright, kept "open house" most of the time on the C. L. S. C. Veranda, answering the same questions over and over and giving beginners the benefit of her personal experience. By the end of the season the Class had enrolled over three hundred members, many of them intent upon organizing circles as soon as they should return home. The 1912s at an early stage in their career united upon a class name, "Shakespeare." Their motto and emblem proved a more difficult problem. At length the marigold won the day, its brilliant gold color and the fact that it can be secured almost everywhere, being distinctly appropriate qualities for a world poet. It was suggested by an allusion in one of Shakespeare's plays: "The marigold that goes to bed with the sun and with it rises weeping." The old favorite from Hamlet was selected for the Class motto: "To thine own self be true." A very effective temporary banner was borne aloft by the Class on Recognition day, a picture of Shakespeare being mounted on a white background with a bunch of marigold attached to the supporting arm of the banner. The Class elected Mr. Victor Rhodes of St. Louis, for President, and a system of Round Robin letters among members at Chautauqua was planned so that news of their progress might be given from time to time in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. Every member who organizes a circle will be regarded by fellow 1912s as worthy of special honor. The names of the officers will be found on page 308 of this magazine and the Treasurer, Miss Douglas, especially requests that any new members who

would like to join one of the Round Robin groups send their addresses to her.

THE CLASS OF 1909.

The members of the Dante Class at Chautauqua, now become "seniors," showed themselves fully awake to their responsibilities. Under the genial leadership of their President, Rev. William Channing Brown, the members held frequent meetings. They discussed the readings of the past three years, and built up a strong class spirit. Final designs for the Class banner were submitted and the class voted to accept a very effective design which, while more expensive than they had at first considered, was such a beautiful work of art that they were unwilling to be satisfied with anything less. The grape-vine gave a rare opportunity for effective use in a design and the artist worked out a lovely harmony of green and gold and purple on a creamy white background. The members who have been at Chautauqua each summer during the past four years have enthusiastically contributed each year to the three Class funds,—the banner, Alumni Hall where the Class holds its gatherings, and the Hall of Philosophy which includes their tablet. Many members who have not been to Chautauqua will want the privilege of sharing in Class expenses and amounts from a dollar up, or down, may be sent to the Class Treasurer. Every member of 1909 is urged to plan to finish all reading this year on time and any who have fallen behind are assured that they can catch up with a little extra effort. The Dante Class looks forward to a very large attendance at Chautauqua next year and those who cannot go to any assembly count, nevertheless, in making 1909 a memorable Class.

PRICES OF BOOKS ON SWITZERLAND.

The following books announced in the August number to be read in connection with the Reading Journey Through Switzerland are given here again with prices. They were announced in two groups, one book to be selected from each group. This arrangement is not, however, obligatory. Two books may be selected from the same group if more feasible.

A Short History of Switzerland. K. Dändliker, \$2.50.

The Story of Switzerland. R. Stead and Mrs. A. Hug. \$1.50.

C. L. S. C. Round Table

Swiss Life in Town and Country. Story. \$1.20.
 A Sovereign People. Henry D. Lloyd. \$1.50 net.
 For the second book any one of the following:
 Scrambles Among the Alps. E. Whymper. \$5.00.
 Hours of Exercise in the Alps. J. Tyndall. \$2.00.
 The Playground of Europe. Leslie Stephen. \$1.50.
 Our Life in the Swiss Highlands. John Addington and M. A. Symonds. \$2.50.

MAPS.

Readers are reminded of the very excellent little Pocket Maps of the Rand, McNally series for 25 cents each. The Netherlands is 14x21 inches, Europe 28x21. Outline maps to be filled in by readers can be secured for a few cents each. Address Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York.

CLASS NOTES.

On the last pages of this month's Round Table will be found a complete directory of the officers, name, emblem, and motto of each Class.

The Class of '82 voted at its last meeting to paint and repair Pioneer Hall before another season, also to have by another year a pennant with the name Pioneer on one side and on the other their class emblem and year 1882. Each member of the class everywhere was invited to earn a dollar for this purpose during the year and come prepared to tell how it was accomplished or send a letter about it to be read on "Class Family Evening" next season. The matter of an '82 standard, discussed last year, was left open for further report next season. It is hoped that the new barberry hedge around the fountain will in due time become a protection as it is now a thing of beauty. Eighty-four members enrolled for the season and enthusiasm was very marked.

Meetings of The Guild of the Seven Seals at Chautauqua this summer were well attended and interesting. The number of seals reported as on the diplomas of those present aggregated 542. One member reported 106; two over 50; and eight over 30. The special course on Browning as prepared by Mr. P. H. Boynton, was especially commended to Guild readers. The fee for the study pamphlet and memoranda is \$1.00 and may be secured from the C. L. S. C. office.

The Class of '86, which celebrated its decennial by planting trees near Alumni Hall and its vicennial by a gift of \$100 for beautifying the Aula Christi, is now planning a contribution of \$100 to the Hall of Philosophy which includes the laying of their Class tablet. They hope to accomplish this by or before 1911, their 25th anniversary. At the last Class meeting for this year eleven members held a "tea" at Mrs. Chaney's home and at its conclusion gave in honor of their hostess and for the first time the '86 "yell" which had been formally adopted:

Rah, rah, rah!

We are *one* of the cliques.

We are *the* "Progressives,"

The Class of '86.

The Classes of '85, '05, and '96 were among those who dedicated

their tablets in the Hall of Philosophy this summer. The '96's placed on the margin of their's a brass tablet inscribed "Seaton Memorial" in remembrance of their Class President, Mr. John A. Seaton.

The decennial exercises of the Class of '98 were held in their Class room on August 17. Greetings were extended by Mr. Z. L. White, President of the Class of '90, and Miss Irene I. F. Roach, Secretary of the Class of 1906, these two classes being fellow room mates of '98. Chancellor Vincent was also invited to be present and received from the Class a gift of forty dollars for the Aula Christi. His response showed how deeply he feels the importance of the Aula Christi in the future life of Chautauqua and his appreciation of the efforts of the C. L. S. C. members to make the realization of his dream complete.

The members of the Class of 1910, the "Gladstone" Class, received from their Secretary, Miss Harris, who is sojourning in Europe, a fine reproduction of the painting of Gladstone, by John Everett Millais, which hangs in the National Portrait Gallery in London.

The Class of 1911 postponed the selection of its motto and emblem until this year. Its name as selected last year is Longfellow. The motto chosen is "Act, act in the living present," and the emblem, the chestnut. The latter is closely associated with Longfellow, and is a tree that grows very widely. Its foliage is exceptionally beautiful. The design of the new Class banner is to be a full length figure of the young Hiawatha, the hero of Longfellow's great epic.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR NOVEMBER.

FIRST WEEK—OCTOBER 29—NOVEMBER 5.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapters IV. and V. Napoleon. Parts I. and II.

SECOND WEEK—NOV. 5-12.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Friendship of Nations, Part II. Danger Points of Conflict Around the Globe.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter VI. Napoleon. Part III.

THIRD WEEK—NOV. 12-19.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Dutch Art and Artists." Chapter II. Rembrandt.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter VII. Napoleon. Part IV.

FOURTH WEEK—NOV. 19-26.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in the Hollow Land." Chapter II. Characteristics of the Hollow-Land.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Paper: Sketch of Napoleon's life up to the time of his Nile expedition.
2. Paper: Josephine Beauharnais. (See lives of Napoleon).
3. Review with summary of chief points in Chapter on Napoleon, Part I.
4. Brief Oral Reports: Striking qualities of Richlieu, Kaunitz, and

C. L. S. C. Round Table

- Loyola. Conditions in France which preceded the coming of Henry IV.; In England of Cromwell. (These reports might be given in connection with the review of the Chapter).
5. Roll Call: Answers to the question, What three important facts have most impressed you in reading these first two chapters?

SECOND WEEK.

1. Discussion of traits of the Kaiser as given in the September and October CHAUTAUQUANS.
2. Review with summary of article on Danger Points around the Globe.
3. Paper: The recent trouble between Italy and Turkey. (See current magazines and weeklies.)
4. Roll Call: Items of current interest relative to the Danger Points around the Globe.
5. Review with summary of chapter on Napoleon, Part III.
6. Answers to the question,—Can you find any parallel between the relations of the different countries in Napoleon's time and international relations today? A different country might be assigned to each of several members to consider and report upon.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Review of chapter on Napoleon, Part IV.
2. Character Sketch: Charles V. (See histories, encyclopedias, etc.)
3. Reading: Selections from articles entitled "Strange Lineage of a Royal Baby," *Cosmopolitan* 43:465, September, 1907.
4. Oral Reports: Personal traits of William of Orange; the situation which Europe presented in his day; his qualities as a statesman. (See all available histories, biographies, Library Shelf in September CHAUTAUQUAN, etc.)
5. Reading: Selection from the Siege of Leyden. (See Library Shelf in this magazine.)
6. Paper: Rembrandt. (See bibliography following the article, also magazine reference).
7. Study of the article on Rembrandt. Each member should be assigned one of the pictures described by Mr. Zug and point out how it illustrates the artist's characteristics. There is a monograph on Rembrandt in the Masters in Art Series containing ten fine illustrations and much interesting and valuable comment. Many good pictures can be found in old magazines and it will be helpful to study pictures not described by Mr. Zug and see how far the reader can apply his suggestions.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Paper: "The Fight with the Waters" in Holland. (See a very interesting chapter with this title in "Holland and the Hollanders" by Meldrum. If this book is not available look up articles and encyclopedia references on Holland.)
2. Roll Call: Answered by giving characteristics of the eleven provinces. (See any available book, encyclopedias, etc. In "Holland Described by Great Writers" by Singleton, there is a chapter on The Dutch Race.)
3. Paper: "Father Cats." (See Warner Library of the World's Best Literature, encyclopedias, etc.)

4. Review and Discussion of Essay by Austin Dobson on Jacob Cats with study of the illustrations.
5. Pronunciation Match on Dutch proper names.

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special programs for Graduate Circles and Clubs specializing upon the two Dutch series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs).

FIRST WEEK.

1. Paper: "The Fight with the Waters." (See a very interesting chapter with this title in "Holland and the Hollanders" by Meldrum. A map showing relations of land and water would add much to the value of such a paper.)
2. Roll Call: Answered by giving characteristics of the eleven provinces. (See chapter on The Dutch Race in Holland Described by Great Writers, also encyclopedias and all available books).
3. Oral Report with reading of selections from "Holland and its People by De Amicis, chapter on Leyden; description of founding of University of Leyden and of the famous Siege. (See also article in *Harper's Magazine*, March, 1881.)
4. Paper: Maurice and John of Barneveld. (See Motley's works, Roger's "Story of Holland," and "Brave Little Holland" by Griffiths.)
5. Study of the article on Frans Hals in the September CHAUTAUQUAN. Each member should be assigned one of the pictures described, showing how it illustrates the artist's characteristics. All other available pictures should be secured. The monograph on "Hals" in the "Masters in Art Series" contains ten fine half-tones and can be secured for twenty cents. Many good pictures can be found in old magazines.

SECOND WEEK.

1. Oral Reports: Some characteristics of the Gemunte; The Provincial States; The States General. (See "Holland and the Hollanders," Meldrum.)
2. Paper: Hugo Grotius.
3. Reading: Selection from the chapter entitled A Dutch Village in "Dutch Life in Town and Country."
4. Paper: Father Cats. (See Warner Library of the World's Best Literature, encyclopedias, etc.)
5. Review and Discussion of Essay by Austin Dobson on Jacob Cats with study of the illustrations.
6. Pronunciation match on Dutch proper names.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Paper: The Dutch East India Company. (See encyclopedias, histories, etc.)
2. Map review: Dutch possessions the world over.
3. Roll Call: Current news relating to Holland.
4. Paper: Life of Rembrandt. (See references at end of article in this magazine.)
5. Study of Article on Rembrandt in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. (See suggestions on Hals under program for first week.)

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Paper: Martin Harpertsson Tromp. (See "Naval Heroes of Holland" by J. A. Mets, encyclopedias and histories.)
2. Oral Report: The Dutch Army and Navy of Today. (See Dutch Life in Town and Country.)
3. Paper: De Ruyter and the Fight with England. (See histories, encyclopedias, and the Library Shelf in November CHAUTAUQUAN.)
4. Roll Call.
5. Reading: Selection from the chapter on Helder by De Amicis in "Holland and its People."

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON NOVEMBER READINGS.

THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS, CHAPTER II. DANGER POINTS AROUND THE GLOBE.

1. What recent events illustrate the ease with which international complications may arise? 2. What seemed to be the chief danger points six years ago? 3. How has the situation changed in Korea and India? 4. What views have been held by several countries regarding the aggressiveness of Germany? 5. What means has Germany taken to dispel these ideas? 6. What statements were made by the German Ambassador? 7. How has Austro-Hungary seemed to menace the peace of Europe? 8. In what way has the unity of Austria been promoted? 9. Why has Hungary also seemed to accept the situation for the present? 10. What four danger points suggest at present possible trouble? 11. What leading diplomats have regarded the Macedonian problem with apprehension. 12. To what provinces is the name Macedonia now applied? 13. What causes keep them in a restless condition? 14. Why do the powers fear to give autonomy to Macedonia? 15. Why have recent attempts at reform proved unsuccessful? 16. What serious problems will arise if complete autonomy for Macedonia is attempted? 17. What ambitions has Italy in the Balkans? 18. How do her claims conflict with those of Austria? 19. Why does France lay claim to Morocco? 20. What blocks her way? 21. What two solutions of the situation are possible? 22. What view of Russo-Japanese conditions is given in the volume "The New Far East?" 23. How does Mr. Putnam-Weale in his "The Truce in the Far East" regard the situation? 24. What serious friction has recently arisen between Japan and China? 25. What charge against Japan is made by England and America? 26. Why must Russia construct a new line to Vladivostock? 27. What difficult problem is presented by the Aland Islands? 28. How are Germany and Russia "imprisoned empires?"

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW LAND.

Chapter II.

1. How does the Dutch government provide for the care of the dykes? 2. What is the character of the Dutch climate? 3. What are the chief Dutch coins? 4. What are the three chief governing bodies in Holland? 5. Describe briefly the nature of each. 6. What portfolios are held by the Cabinet ministers? 7. What is the "Raad Van Staat"? 8. How is the army secured? 9. What is the size of the army on a peace footing? 10. Give some significant figures from the national budget. 11. What are

the chief religious bodies in Holland? 12. Gives some figures showing the growth and present population of Holland. 13. Give some characteristics of the Dutch language. 14. Name the eleven provinces of the Netherlands. 15. Give the capital of each. 16. What relation has Luxemburg to Holland? 17. What are the most important Dutch colonies in the East and West Indies? 18. How much of a navy has Holland? 19. How have the natural boundaries of Holland on the land side affected its history? 20. What influence upon Dutch character has been exerted by the sea? 21. Compare the literary development of the Dutchman with that of his English and German neighbors.

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS.

1. What was the nature of Rembrandt's early education? 2. Under what teachers did he receive art instruction? 3. What does the date of the Anatomy lesson argue as to his industry? 4. How does Rembrandt's treatment of this subject compare with that of his predecessors? 5. What qualities of this work show that it belongs to the early part of his career? 6. What is meant by the "emancipated Rembrandt"? 7. What is the general character of "The Night Watch"? 8. Compare this picture with a similar one by Van der Helst. 9. Why was his treatment of this unsatisfactory to his sitters? 10. What does Froxentin mean by Rembrandt's two natures? 11. In what famous picture are these dual natures harmonized? 12. Describe his treatment of this subject. 13. Give some of the characteristics of his portraits, the Shipbuilder and his Wife, etc. 14. In what way does he suggest Giotto and Millet? 15. In what portraits are his deeper qualities shown? 16. Compare Rubens, Velasquez, and Rembrandt. 17. In what quality is he unique?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Who was Harold Frederic? 2. What countries compose the Balkan States? 3. When did the island of Crete escape from Turkish control. 4. Where is the province of Adrianople? 5. Who is the present ruler of Morocco? 6. What are littoral powers? 1. Who was Hans Breitmann? 2. How does the Dutch navy compare in numbers with that of Germany and the United States? 3. Who was De Ruyter? 4. What is the motto of the Dutch Republic? 5. What was the Dutch East India Company? 6. Where are the most famous picture galleries in Holland?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON OCTOBER READING.

1. A movement which in theory stands for extreme individualism and independence of authority in government except such as may arise spontaneously. It has been influential in bringing about revolts among the peasants and attempts at Constitutional reforms. 2. An Englishman, late London correspondent of the *New York Times* and *Chicago Tribune*. Studied in France, graduated at Harvard in 1881, student at Leipzig University in 1881-3. Inaugurated in 1882 agitation for preservation of Niagara Falls. For some years on staff of *Pall Mall Gazette* and *London Chronicle*. Traveled extensively. Author of "The Real Japan," "All the Russias," "People and Politics of the Far East," "The New East," etc. 3. A French army occupied the country in 1881 and established a French protectorate ostensibly with the purpose

of protecting Algeria from raids into her territory which was under French control. 4. Prince Bernard von Bülow. 5. James Bryce; Jean J. Jusserand; (to be appointed); Baron Rosen; E. Mayor des Planches; L. Hengelmüller von Hengervar. 6. M. Clemenceau; Armand Fallières.

1. Founded by Philip the Good of Burgundy 1430 on occasion of marriage to Isabella of Portugal. Office of Grand Master passed to the House of Hapsburg in 1477 with acquisition of Burgundy. After death of Charles V the office exercised by Spanish kings. Austria claimed it after the Netherlands were ceded to her in 1713. Dispute was undecided and the Order now exists separately in both countries. The badge is a golden ram pendent from a jewel of elaborate design with the motto "*Pretium laborum non vile*." 2. The Duchy of Burgundy proper, a French fief lay between Champagne on the north, Franche-Comté and Savoy on the east, Dauphiné and Lyonnais on the south and Bourbonnais, Nivernais, and Orléanais on the west. Under Charles the Bold Franche-Comté and the Low Countries were added to it. 3. No imposition of taxes without consent of provincial estates. Cities not to be compelled to contribute to requests which they have not voted. No ruler shall begin an offensive or defensive war without consent of the estates. 4. The "Beggars" was a name assumed by a league of Protestant Flemish nobles organized to resist the encroachments of Philip. Their name and friar's dress gave them an appearance of humility which cloaked their audacity. 5. An organized slaughter of from 20,000 to 30,000 French Protestants in Paris and the Provinces instigated by Catherine de' Medici in 1572.

1. Sir Anthony Vandyke or Van Dyck. A famous Flemish painter of the seventeenth century. A pupil of Rubens. 2. Portraits of Charles I and his family and famous men of the time. A crucifixion at Mechlin. Elevation of the Cross at Courtrai. St. Augustine at Antwerp.

GLOSSARY.

In the following glossary will be found a number of words whose pronunciation cannot be indicated accurately by spelling. They are marked with a star. The capital N stands for the French nasal sound, and to get the correct idea of this sound and of the French *eu*, also the German *ch* and the umlaut, the reader is advised to ask some friend who has studied French or German to help him. Circles will find it worth while to secure a teacher who can give them a number of short drills on the principles of pronunciation of French and German. Many of the European proper names which one encounters have been so thoroughly anglicised that it is advisable to use only the English form. Other lists of proper names will appear from month to month. The Century Dictionary has been followed in the following list, the emphatic syllables being indicated by italics. Persons who find it inconvenient to secure a teacher may receive some help from the following suggestions:

The two little dots over a vowel in German, called the Umlaut, stand for an *e* that used to form part of the syllable. The sound of *ü* may be produced by keeping the lips in the position of saying the *oo* sound in *poor* and trying to utter the *ee* sound of *peer*.

A syllable marked thus *tre(r)me(r)*, etc., indicates that *r* should be given the sound which it has in *er* though the *r* should not be sounded.

Franche-Comté

froNsh-koN-tay

(French nasal sound)

Artois

ahr-tuah

Van Eyck

van-ike

Vasari

vah-sah-ree

Hobbema

hob-beh-mah

Van der Heyden

van-der-hy-den

Hondecoeter

hon-deh-koo-ter

Van Miers

van-me-ris

Maes

mahs

Steen

stane

*Ter Borch

tair boorch (Ger. ch)

Liverens

lee-vens

Rembrandt

rem-brant

Hals

hahls

*Hooch

hoch (Ger. ch)

Hoogh

hoag

Wouverman

wou-ver-mahn

Van Ostade

van-os-tah-deh

Leys

lice

Van's Gravesande

vans-grah-veh-zahn-deh

*Tronentin

fro-mioN-taN (Fr nasal sound)

Velasquez

vay-lahs-kayth

Correggio

kor-red-jo

Delfshaven

delfs-hah-veu

Mierevelt

me-reh-velt

Leyster

lice ter

Groot

grote

Farnese

fahr-may-see

*Scheveningen

schay-ven-in-ghen (Gr. ch)

*Walcheren

val-cher-en (Ger. ch)

Gouda

gow-dah

Curaçao

koo-rah-sah-o

Celebes

sel-eh-behs

Schwerin

shvay-reen

Ruisdael

roys-dahl

Cuyp

koyp

Descater

day-kart

Pymont

peer-mont

Waldeck

vahl-deck

*Pichegru

peesh-gru (Ger. u)

Tromp

tromp

DeRuyter

de roy-ter

Oldenbarneveld

ol-den-bar-neh-velt

Jacqueline

zhahk-leen

Charlemagne

char-leh-mane

Frisian

friz-ian

Scheffer

shef-fer

Alma-Tadema

ahl-mah-tah-deh-mah

Stavoren

stah-vo-ren

Enkhuisen

enk-hoi-zen

Hoorn

horn

Broek

brook

Alkmaar

ahlk-mahr

Courtrai

koor-tray

Brabant

brah-bant

Secretary, Mrs. W. T. Hall, Tarentum, Pa.
 Assistant Secretary, Miss E. Merritt, Kewanee, Ill.
 Treasurer and Trustee, Mrs. J. W. Clark, New Castle, Pa.

CLASS OF 1902—"THE ALTRUIANS."

Motto: "Not for self, but for all." Emblem: The Golden Glow.

President, Mrs. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.
 Vice-presidents, Dr. G. N. Luccock, Oak Park, Ill.; Dr. E. L. Warden, Louisville, Ky.; Mrs. Josephine Braman, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss H. M. Brown, St. Louis; Mrs. O. P. Norton, Chicago, Ill.; Mr. C. M. Stoddard, Plattsburg, Ill.; Miss Mulets, Norfolk, Nebr.; Mrs. F. M. Keefe, Waltham, Mass.; Mrs. E. H. Baumgartner, Decatur, Texas; Mrs. Robert F. Thorne, Louisville, Ky.; Miss E. Kay, New York City.
 Secretary, Mrs. Belle K. Richards, Oil City, Pa.
 Treasurer, Mrs. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.
 Trustee, Prof. J. C. Armstrong, Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS OF 1901—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY."

Motto: "Light, Love, Life." Emblem: The Palm.

President, Dr. Wm. S. Bainbridge, New York City.
 Vice-presidents Mrs. Samuel George, Wellsville, W. Va.; Mrs. Ellsworth Savage, Churchville, N. Y.; Miss Clara Mathews, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss F. A. P. Spurway, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss Caroline Leech, Louisville, Ky.; Miss Elizabeth Stewart, Orange, N. J.; Mrs. Elizabeth Stockton, Williamsburg, O.; Miss Margaret Hackley, Georgetown, Ky.; Mrs. Laura Banks, New York City.
 Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. M. W. Jamieson, Warren, Pa.
 Class Trustee, Mrs. Lawrence, Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1900—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

Motto: "Faith in the God of Truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor." "Licht, Liebe, Leben." Emblem: The Pine.

President, Miss Mabel Campbell, New York City.
 Vice-presidents, Mrs. William J. Ritchey, Pittsburg, Pa.; Mrs. Hannah Shur, El Paso, Illinois; Mrs. J. Preston Hall, Fredonia, N. Y.; Miss Mary F. Fuhrman, Snyreport, La.; Miss Frances Cuddy, Ponce, Porto Rico.
 Secretary and Treasurer, Miss Ella V. Ricker, Fredericksburg, Va.
 Trustee, Miss Ella V. Ricker.

CLASS OF 1899—"THE PATRIOTS."

Motto: "Fidelity, Fraternity." Emblem: The Flag.

President, Captain J. A. Travis, 1008 E. Capitol street, Washington, D. C.
 Vice-presidents, Miss Martha A. Bortle, Washington, D. C.; Mr. J. C. Martin, New York City; Mr. P. W. Bemis, Westfield, N. Y.
 Secretary, Mrs. S. R. Strong, Chautauqua, New York.
 Treasurer, Mrs. J. V. Ritts, Butler, Pa.
 Trustee, Mr. J. W. Ford, Hiram, O.

CLASS OF 1898—"THE LANIERS."

Motto: "The humblest life that lives may be divine." Emblem: The Violet.

President, Mrs. M. M. Findlay, Franklin, Pa.
 Vice-presidents, Mrs. E. S. Watrous, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. R. P. Hopper, West Toronto, Ont.; Mrs. Isabella M. Hazeltine, Warren, Pa.; Miss J. A. Wilmot, Cleveland, O.; Miss Ella Scofield, Warren, Pa.
 Secretary, Mrs. F. M. Nichols, Atlantic, Iowa.
 Treasurer and Trustee, Miss Fannie B. Collins, Grand View, Ohio.

CLASS OF 1897—"THE ROMANS."

Motto: "Veni Vidi, Vici." Emblem: The Ivy.

President, Miss Mary Wallace Kimball, 27 W. 38th street, New York City.
 Vice-presidents: E. P. Mackie, New Orleans, La.; W. H. Blanchard, Westminster, Vt.; Mrs. A. P. Crossgrove, Pilot Point, Tex.
 Secretary, Miss Ella E. Smith, New Haven, Conn.
 Assistant Secretary, Mrs. C. M. Thomas, Grove City, Pa.

CLASS OF 1896—"THE TRUTH SEEKERS."

Motto: "Truth is eternal." Emblems: The Forget-me-not. The Greek Lamp.

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Motto: "The truth shall make you free." Emblem: The Nasturtium.

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Motto: "Study to be what you wish to seem." Emblem: The Acorn.

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Motto: "Seek and ye shall find." Emblem: The Carnation.

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Motto: "So run that ye may obtain." Emblem: The Laurel and the White Rose.

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Motto: "Redeeming the time." Emblem: The Tuberose.

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Motto: "Knowledge unused for the good of others is more vain than unused gold." Emblem: The Daisy.

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Motto: "Let us be seen by our deeds." Emblem: The Geranium.

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Motto: "Neglect not the gift that is in thee." Emblem: The Pansy.

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Motto: "We study for light to bless with light." Emblem: The Aster.

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Motto: "Press on, reaching after those things which are before." Emblem: The Heliotrope.

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Motto: "Press forward; he conquers who wills." Emblem: The Goldenrod.

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Esperanto News

THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL ESPERANTO CONGRESS.

The Fourth International Esperanto Congress so successfully held in Dresden, Germany, last month, voted to hold two International Congresses in 1909; one in Chautauqua, N. Y., in the last week of August, and another in Barcelona, Spain, at a later date. This decision was greatly influenced by the strenuous efforts of the Esperanto Association of North America which at the First National Esperanto Convention held in Chautauqua during the third week of last July united all the Esperanto movements in the United States and Canada.

ESPERANTO PERIODICALS.

A striking proof of the progress of Esperanto is the constant appearance of new Esperanto periodicals. On July last there were fifty-five Esperanto gazettes, most of them monthlies, an advance of eleven on the number for December, 1907. Of the new ones, two are of general interest (one of them *Espero*, a 48-page magazine in Esperanto and Russian, goes out monthly to upward of 100,000 readers as a supplement to the well known Radical review *Vjestnik Znania*); two are for specialists: *Europa Kristana Celado* (the official organ of the United States Christian Endeavor Societies), and the *Vocho de Kuracistoj* (an international review for medical men); and the remaining are national propaganda monthlies for Catalonia, Mexico, Roumaniz, Chile, Ethonia, Italy, etc. An official police gazette in Budapest has opened in its pages a special column for Esperanto, and intends in due course to found an International Police Review.

ESPERANTO AND INTERNATIONAL SOCIETIES.

Several more non-Esperantist societies have adopted Esperanto for correspondence purposes: The Troyes section of the "Ligue des Droits de l'Homme," the Academy of Social Sciences in Burgo, and the central office of the Freemasons in Berne.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The following recognitions of Esperanto by public institutions are worthy of note: In Bohemia, the Organizing Committee of the Jubilee Exhibition in Prague published an illustrated Esperanto circular and has officially invited the members of the Esperantist Congress at Dresden to Prague and the Exhibition after the Congress. The Postmaster-General has authorized the use of Esperanto in telegrams within the United Kingdom on an equal footing with modern European languages at the ordinary rate. At St. Etienne, France, the city voted a subvention of 300 francs to the local Esperanto Group. In Dresden, the city has shown practical interest and coöperation in the matter by making a donation of \$1,250.00 to the Congress expenses, and has decided to place the municipal tramways free of charge at the disposal of the delegates. The city also provided free of charge the steamer for the Congress excursion on the Elbe to Meissen and Saxon, Switzerland. In Japan, Count Hayashi, Minister of Foreign Affairs, has accepted the honorary presidency of the Japanese Esperanto Association, and in a public letter recommended his fellow-countrymen to take up Esperanto, which he calls the gospel of the world.

In the United States, the government recognized Esperanto by sending Major P. E. Straub, Medical Corps, United States Army,

as its official representative to the Congress. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology has introduced Esperanto into its curriculum on the same footing as the other modern languages. President Van Hise of the University of Wisconsin announced his determination to put Esperanto into the University in October and several other Universities are seriously considering the advisability of so doing. Esperanto is already a regular feature of the Chautauqua Summer School.

The above are but a few facts in regard to Esperanto progress. Facts cannot be gainsaid, and even the most uncompromising of skeptics must admit that there must be some practical worth, aye, and some ideal worth, too, in a language which thus has the power of kindling enthusiasm and enlisting the activities of men and women in ever increasing numbers throughout the world.

A Short Course in Esperanto

II. Prefixes and Suffixes

Perhaps the most important characteristic of Esperanto is its elasticity. By the addition of a number of suffixes and prefixes to any root under certain fixed rules, words may be built up almost indefinitely. The student has already seen the grammatical terminations and the manner of adding them to the root. For example: *legi*—to read; *leganto*—a reader; etc. In a similar way, the joining of words is equally simple: *Al*—to; *porti*—to carry; *alporti*—to bring, etc.

The suffixes and prefixes by means of which word-building becomes so easy, should be learned by heart, a few at a time.

PREFIXES.

Mal, which marks the contraries. Ex: *bona*—good; *malbona*—evil; *estimi*—to esteem, *malestimi*—to despise; *supre*—above, *mal-supre*—below; *amo*—love, *malamo*—hatred, etc.

Bo, which marks relationship by marriage. Ex: *patro*—father, *bopatro*—father-in-law; *filino*—daughter, *bofilino*—daughter-in-law.

Dis, which marks disunion or separation. Ex: *semi*—to sow, *dissemi*—to disseminate; *jeti*—to throw, *disjeti*—to scatter; *iri*—to go, *disiri*—to separate, go apart.

Ek, which marks the beginning of an action, or that which is momentary. Ex: *kanti*—to sing, *ekkanti*—to begin to sing; *krii*—to cry, *ekkrii*—to cry out; *vidi*—to see, *ekvidi*—to perceive.

Ge, which marks two sexes united. Ex: *patro*—father, *gepatroj*—father and mother, parents; *edzo*—husband, *geedzoj*—married pair, husband and wife.

Re, which means again, anew, back. Ex: *veni*—to come, *reveni*—to come back, to return; *iri*—to go, *reiri*—to go back; *vivigi*—to cause to live, *revivigi*—to resuscitate.

SUFFIXES.

Ad, which marks duration of the action or of the idea expressed by the root. Ex: *pafo*—a shot, *pafado*—a fusillade, con-

tinuous firing; parolo—speech, parolado—discourse; iri—to go, iradi—to keep going; krei—to cry, kriadi—to continue crying.

Aj, which marks something possessing a certain quality or made of. Ex: malnova—old, malnovajo—an antique, something old; bela—beautiful, belajo—a beautiful thing; pentri—to paint, pentraĵo—a painting; bona—good, bonajo—something good, a good quality, a good point, malbonajo—a bad point, a defect.

An, which marks the member, the inhabitant, the partisan of. Ex: urbo—city, urbano—citizen; vilaĝo—village, vilaĝano—villager; Bostonano—Bostonian; kristano—Christian.

Ar, which marks an assemblage, a collection of. Ex: arbo—a tree, arbaro—forest; ŝtupo—step, ŝtuparo—staircase; vorto—word, vortaro—dictionary; libro—book, libraro—library, collection of books; ŝipo—ship, ŝiparo—fleet; monto—mountain, montaro—range of mountains.

Ebl, that which is possible, that which can be. Ex: kredi—to believe, kredebla—credible, that can be believed; legi—to read, legebla—legible; manĝi—to eat, manĝebla—eatable.

Ec, marks quality in the abstract. Ex: bela—beautiful, beleco—beauty; juna—young, juneco—youth; amiko—friend, amikeco—friendship; viro—man, vireco—manliness, virility; granda—great, grandeco—greatness; malriĉa—poor, malriĉeco—poverty.

Eds, marks the consort of. Ex: lavistino—washerwoman, lavistinedzo—washerwoman's husband; doktoro—doctor, doktoredzino—wife of a doctor; forĝistedzino—a smith's wife.

Eg, marking the highest degree. Ex: varma—warm, varmega—hot; granda—great, grandega—enormous, immense; pluvo—rain, pluvo—downpour; paŝilo—gun, paŝilego—cannon; bastono—stick, bastonego—club.

Ej, marks the place specially devoted to. Ex: kuiri—to cook, kuirejo—kitchen; preĝi—to pray, preĝejo—church; lerni—to learn, lernejo—school; malsanulo—sick person, malsanulejo—hospital.

Em, marks inclination, proneness to. Ex: kredi—to believe, kredema—credulous; kredemo—credulity; venĝi—to avenge, venĝema—vindictive; singardi—to take care of one self, singardema—prudent; singardemo—circumspection, prudence; koleri—to be angry, kolereza—irascible.

Er, marks the unit, one out of a collection. Ex: mono—money, monero—a coin; sablo—sand, sablero—a grain of sand; hajlo—hail, hajlo—hailstone.

Estr, means chief of. Ex: regno—kingdom, state; regnestro—chief of the state, ruler; ŝipo—ship, ŝipestro—master of vessel; lernejo—school, lernejestro—schoolmaster.

Et, diminutive. Ex: knabo—boy, knabeto—little boy; libro—book, libreto—booklet; monto—mountain, monteto—hill; ridi—to laugh, rideti—to smile; dormi—to sleep, dormeti—to slumber.

Id, denotes the descendant or child of. Ex: bovo—bull, bovido—calf; koko—cock, kokido—chicken; Israelido—Israelite.

Ig, to cause to be, to make. Ex: pura—clean, purigi—to cause to be clean, to cleanse; scii—to know, sciigi—to inform; bruli—to burn, to be on fire; bruligi—to cause to burn, to set on fire; devi—must, devigi—to necessitate, to compel; morti—to die, mortigi—to slay; fianĉo—fiancé, fianĉigi—to betroth; pligranda—greater, pligrandigi—to enlarge; for—forth, away, off, forigi—to eject, to put forth, to cause to be at a distance; sen—without, senigi—to cause to be without, to deprive.

Iĝ, which means to become, to grow, to turn. Ex: maljuna—old, maljunigi—to grow old; pala—pale, paligi—to turn pale; edzo—husband, edzigi—to marry; fluida—liquid, fluidigi—to liquify; al—to, aliĝi—to ally oneself to, to join.

In, which marks the female sex. Ex: patro—father, patrino—mother, frato—brother, fratino—sister; viro—man, virino—woman; fraŭlo—bachelor, fraŭlino—miss; bovo—bull, bovino—cow.

Il, which marks the instrument. Ex: haki—to hew, hakilo—axe; kombi—to comb, kombilo—a comb; kudri—to sew, kudrilo—needle; tondi—to shear, to clip, tondilo—scissors; levi—to lift, levilo—a lever.

Ind, means worthy of, that which deserves. Ex: kredo—belief, kredinda—worthy of belief; laŭdo—praise, laŭdinda—laudable; memoro—remembrance, memorinda—memorable; bedaŭro—regret, bedaŭrinda—regrettable, bedaŭrinde—unfortunately, in a manner to be regretted.

Ist, marks the profession. Ex: boto—boot, botisto—bootmaker; kuraci—to cure, kuracisto—physician; ŝteli—to steal, ŝtelisto—thief; maro—sea, maristo—seaman.

Ing, marks the object in which the thing expressed by the root is ordinarily introduced or placed. Ex: kandelo—candle, kandelingo—candlestick; plumo—pen, plumingo—penholder; fingro—finger, fingeringo—thimble.

Uj, means that which bears, supports, carries or contains. Ex: cigaro—cigars, cigarujo—cigar-case; mono—money, monujo—purse; sukero—sugar, sukerujo—sugar-bowl; pomo—apple, pomujo—apple-tree; Turko—Turk, Turkujo—Turkey.

Ul, marks a being characterized by. Ex: junu—youth, junulo—a young man; malriculo—a poor man; timo—fear, timulo—a coward; avara—greedy, avarulo—a miser.

Translate the following story:

LA REĜO KAJ LIA SERVISTO.

(El la kolekato da Tataraj rakontoj, prezentita de profesoro Katanov en la Arhivoj de la Universitato de Kazan.)

Reĝo sidis je sia tablo kaj atendis la alporton de manĝaĵoj Sed unu el la servistoj, kiu estis tre timema, faletis kaj kelkaj gutoj de la bulĵono ŝprucis sur la veston de la reĝo. La reĝo koleris kaj ordonis senkapigi la mallertulon. La malfeliĉulo pensis: "Mi estas filo de la morto, mia savo estas neebla!" kaj li prenis la bulĵonujon kaj elverŝis ĝian enhavon sur la reĝon. Tiu ĉi miregis kaj ekkriis: "Ho, junulo, ĉu vi estas posedata de frenezo? Kion vi faris?" La servisto diris: "Mia reĝo, mi ne frenezis, miaj pensoj estas en ordo. Mi kuraĝis fari tion ĉi por danki vin pro via boneco al mi. Nun la homoj ne diros pri vi: la reĝo ekzekutis malfeliĉulon pro ia bagatelo; ili laŭdos vin kaj diros; la reĝo estas tute prava kaj neriproĉinda, ĉar la servisto montris teruregan kaj nepardonindan arogantecon." La reĝo profundigis en pensojn kaj diris: "Ho, junulo, malbone aganta kaj bone vin senkulpiganta, mi pardonas vian abomenan faron pro via lertega klarigo." Kaj la reĝo faris al li bonan donacon.

El la lingvo rusa trad. A. KOFMAN.

El Esperantaj Prozaĵoj.

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All-the-year-round News of Chautauqua

The need was felt for a publication which should carry the news of Chautauqua Institution during the months when the assembly was not in session. It contained the news and earliest advance announcements for all branches of the Chautauqua work, the assembly, summer schools, and C. L. S. C. It also covers the general interests of a town whose importance has been largely increased by the centralization of the Institution Office at Chautauqua throughout the year, and the general interests of Chautauqua Lake Territory.

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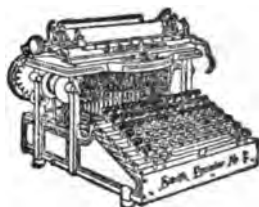
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"The Consequences of War." By Rubens. (See "The Story of the Peace Movement," page 336.)

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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No. 3.



ONE of the issues of the national campaign and of several state campaigns has been "reform of the rules" governing legislative business. The vigorous attacks of the Methodist bishops and other temperance champions, and of progressive western Republicans generally, on Speaker Cannon have created surprise in wide circles, but they are of unquestioned significance. The charge is that Mr. Cannon has abused and perverted the rules of the national House and has usurped the power to control legislation—to say what bills shall be reported from the committees and what bills shall be "strangled" and buried. In the last Congress, for example, the Littlefield bill to regulate interstate liquor shipments and prevent evasion of state prohibition was smothered in committee, though an adverse report would have served every legitimate purpose of the opposition to the measure. A like fate overtook other bills that the people favored and certain special interests opposed.

There were sporadic and little outbreaks of revolt in the House against the tyranny of the Speaker, the rules committee and other "packed" committees. But party considerations and party discipline prevented any formidable rebellion of the dissatisfied Republicans. In the campaign, however, the question assumed such prominence that not a few Republican candidates for Congress openly repudiated the policy of the ruling clique, and especially of Mr.

Cannon, while some candidates suffered defeat on account of their support of the tactics of Mr. Cannon.

In state legislative campaigns, notably in Illinois, the same issue, the vindication of the right of majorities to vote on legislation, and of every member to have a fair and honest report on his measure, has figured quite prominently. That rules are necessary to discourage obstruction and filibustering no one denies; that the rules which give committees and the speaker power to smother bills obnoxious to them, to prevent even discussion of such bills on the floor, are either necessary, desirable or defensible is now vigorously denied.

The pretence that only "unconstitutional" bills are so treated is thin and insincere, for it is neither the duty nor the privilege of speakers and committees to pass on questions of constitutionality and "save the country" from alleged invalid legislation. They have the right to debate and vote, but not the right to obstruct. The veto power is lodged in the executive, the power to construe and pronounce upon statutes is lodged in the courts. There is no warrant for usurpation and for the suppression of the rights of majorities, minorities and individuals in the legislatures. Representative government must be restored, and committees must be shorn of the illegitimate power they have been exercising—generally in the interest of privilege and monopoly.



The Guaranteeing of Bank Deposits

A question which will survive the campaign of 1908 and be settled without reference to party politics, though it assumed a somewhat partisan aspect for a time, is that of guaranteeing the deposits in the national and state banks. Millions of people, especially in the West, are intensely interested in the idea, and Oklahoma has led the other states by passing a law for a guaranty fund to which all the banks in the state, except national banks, must contribute.

Mr. Bryan has advocated a national law requiring the national banks to establish and maintain such a fund,

and his arguments have been discussed all over the country. Mr. Taft favors a voluntary guaranty system, but to a compulsory national system he is opposed on the ground that the conservative and careful bankers would have to pay for the mistakes and negligence, or even for the deliberate dishonesty and "wildcatting," of the speculative and reckless bankers. This has been the position of the Republican leaders generally, as well as of the overwhelming majority of the bankers in the East and middle West. Yet some prominent Republicans, including Gov. Hoch of Kansas, favor a national guaranty law, believing that its advantages would decisively outweigh its disadvantages. The Fowler currency bill that appeared too radical to the late Congress provided, among other novel features, for a system of deposit protection, though districts were established by it and each was to have its own fund.

It is not denied that a guaranty system would do away with "runs" and panics. It is not denied that if dishonesty could be prevented and all bankers were forced to do a legitimate business, the plan would be both feasible and desirable. But, it is argued, since some bankers are less fit or less intelligent than others, and since some states have heavier bank losses and more bank failures than others, it would not be just to impose upon all a uniform rate of taxation and a uniform set of restrictions and regulations. Connecticut, for example, has had no bank failure for some years, while New York, thanks to stock speculation and unsound loans, has had very bad bank failures. Would it be proper to make the Connecticut depositors pay the losses of the New York depositors?

Aside from the question of fairness, what, it is further asked, would be the effect of a compulsory and universal guaranty system? Would not bankers now reasonably prudent tend to become careless—knowing that they would not be exposed to "runs"—and would not in the long run the entire banking system suffer grave deterioration?

Mr. Bryan and the other advocates of the plan meet these objections by saying that the apprehended dishonesty

would be prevented by more drastic legislation for the examination and regulation of banks, as well as by supplemental supervision on the part of the better bankers; that the incentives to sound banking would be strengthened by the mutualism and co-operation of the banks; that the criminal law would remain as a deterrent as regards misuse of depositors' funds; that the rate of payment to the general fund would be so small as to be negligible, and, finally, that all insurance is based on the principle of spreading and equalizing losses, though the prudent and conservative always and necessarily pay for the imprudent and the careless.

It is not necessary to summarize the whole case either pro or con the guaranty proposal. That further protection to depositors is essential scarcely needs demonstration; the question is really as to the best and least costly method of providing it. The question will be a vital and pressing one in several states, and it is probable that Oklahoma's lead will be followed by Kansas and Missouri. The Kansas Republicans have indorsed a voluntary system, and perhaps that alternative will be tried somewhere. The outcome of the agitation cannot be predicted with complete certainty, but increased protection is surely coming. Holders of bank notes are protected; depositors in savings banks enjoy a fair, though not a sufficient, measure of protection; depositors in commercial banks will demand better safeguards of their interests.



Defects in the Direct Nomination System

On the whole, the direct primary laws of the western states have, as we have had occasion to say, resulted in marked political improvement. The power of the spoils machines has been impaired; better men have been nominated and elected; known reactionaries have been defeated. The voters feel that they "rule" within the party and are not limited to the choice of evils that often results from nominations made by professional politicians and bosses and ratified by servient conventions.

Doubtless the direct primary system will spread and become a permanent part of our political system. Gov. Hughes is advocating it in New York, in opposition to the machine politicians, and if the Empire State should adopt direct nominations other eastern states would undoubtedly follow its example.

But already the system has disclosed certain defects which will need to be remedied. These defects have led its foes to declare that it does more harm than good, that it has been tried and found wanting. One defect is that voters of one party vote at the primaries of another at the command of powerful politicians. This has happened in Illinois, in Missouri, in Nebraska, in Michigan and elsewhere. To defeat progressive candidates the spoilsmen of a party make "deals" with those of other parties and secure support of voters who have no intention of changing their affiliations but are willing to lend themselves to interparty "trades" and stratagems. And even where good candidates of one party are helped at the primaries by the voters of another—and this sometimes happens—it is felt that it is unjust that men who will not help elect should have a voice in nominating.

Another defect in the primary system is the great expense to which candidates are put. The lavish expenditure of money in campaigns is an evil, for it involves practical blackmail of candidates and corporations and the creation of political obligations that cannot honorably be paid without sacrificing the interests of the people. But if the expense is merely to be shifted from machines and organizations to individuals the wealthy candidates will have an undue advantage and the poor men will be discriminated against in the operation of the whole system. The individual candidate must circulate petitions, do a little advertising, pay hall rent and incur other legitimate expenses; and he must do this twice in many instances, before the primary and before the election.

The primary system must be simplified and safeguarded against fraud and waste. It is the friends of direct nomi-

nations who must attend to these improvements, for otherwise the spoilsmen and bosses will discredit and undermine the new system by emphasizing its faults and imperfections.



The Commodities Clause Cases

Another important law has been declared unconstitutional by the federal courts. The so-called commodities clause of the Hepburn railroad rate act—and that act is unquestionably the most notable achievement of the Roosevelt regime—has been pronounced void by the Circuit Court for the eastern district of Pennsylvania. The clause provides, in effect, that railroads or other common carriers that own or control mines or factories and manufacture or sell products shall not transport such products in interstate commerce. The effect of the clause, if legal, is to force the coal-carrying roads to sell their mines and other railroads to give up all production and manufacture of commodities save timber and its products, which are expressly exempted by the clause from the general prohibition.

The clause was enacted in response to a public demand for taking railroads out of other business than carrying. There was convincing evidence that any proprietary interest in other business inevitably led to favoritism, discrimination, unfair competition and like evils. That carriers should be limited to the business of transporting the goods of others is a principle that all accept. The present constitution of Pennsylvania fully recognizes it. But a number of railroads acquired and secured the control of mines prior to the adoption of any state or federal provision against such practices, and the question is whether legislation that directly or indirectly compels them to part with or cease operation of such properties is valid, even assuming that a law regarding future relations and transactions of this character is constitutional.

The federal court above named, with one judge dissenting, held that the commodity section of the rate act, in so far at least as it affects property acquired prior to its adoption,

is invalid, being an invasion of the rights of the states and amounting to the taking of private property without due process of law. Judge Gray said in his opinion:

Ample as is the scope of legislative power granted by the language of the commerce clause, and far as the Supreme Court has undoubtedly gone in sustaining the validity of legislation under it, we think it may be safely said that no assertion of this power hitherto, by Congress, has been so far-reaching or affected in so serious a degree the individual liberty and property rights enjoyed under the constitution and laws of a state as the enactment we are here considering. It is not to be denied that the right to carry in interstate commerce coal which they own in whole or in part, or which is mined or produced by them under their authority, or by coal companies in which they are stockholders was, until the passage of the act in question, a lawful right of these defendants; that it was a common right of property, neither denied nor disputed by the common or statute law of Pennsylvania; that it was a most important property right, the enjoyment and exercise of which was neither criminal nor immoral, and subject only to any restraints imposed upon its possessors by the common or statute law of the state, or by the then existing statutes of the United States, so far as they were engaged in interstate commerce. If in any manner and to any extent whatever they have actually violated the latter, surely they could be restrained or otherwise made amenable to the legal penalties in such behalf without crippling or destroying a business in which they are profitably and usefully engaged.

There are able lawyers who believe that the Supreme Court will reverse this decision. They base their belief on the settled interpretation of the commerce clause of the Constitution. That clause gives Congress plenary and exclusive power over interstate commerce. The states cannot regulate such commerce, and have indeed nothing to do with it. Where goods have to be shipped from one state into another, or into a foreign country, the matter of regulating such shipments is entirely under the control of Congress. By virtue of this power the transmission of lottery tickets has been forbidden, and that irrespective of whether the states legalize lotteries, as they used to do, or prohibit them. It has been argued in Congress and by the Department of Justice that if the national legislature saw fit to do so it could even forbid the carrying of trust-made goods from one state to another. If this be true, and if the precedents sustain this view, why cannot Congress declare that carriers which operate mines or factories shall not transport the products of these into other states? Such a law

does not invade the sphere of the states, for it concerns interstate shipments only.

It may be, however, that the congressional power to regulate and prescribe the conditions of interstate commerce is subject to limitations not heretofore recognized. The power to regulate may not include the power to prohibit transactions that in themselves are innocent. The Supreme Court will be called upon to deal with these vital questions and interpret afresh the commerce clause of the constitution.



Doubts and Fears as to Turkey

The amazing and "miraculous" character of the Turkish revolution is still a subject of general discussion in Europe and America. The developments so far continue, at least on the surface, to be remarkably favorable. The Young Turks and the reformers are supreme, and their representatives control the government in the capital and in the provincial centers, not excepting Macedonia. Great changes are being planned in the army and navy, in the finances of the empire, in taxation, in education, in administration. The program of reform is most ambitious and intelligent. Moreover, peace and order have been preserved. The new regime has been accepted, there are no serious signs of reaction and discontent, as in Russia, for example. All the testimony which comes from impartial observers is singularly good—though there is an undertone of doubt and skepticism. For instance, a correspondent of *The Outlook*, writing from Beyrout, gives this picture of the situation in Syria:

The local situation is extraordinary. "Liberty, equality and fraternity" are on every one's lips, but the stress seems to be on "fraternity." The promulgation of the Constitution, the granting of liberty to the press and to the person, have resulted for the moment, not in license of speech and action, but in a new sense of brotherhood among the warring elements of the people. * * * Monster meetings are still held almost every night, each night in a different section of Beyrout, at which sentiments of mutual regard are interchanged between Moslem and Christian, accompanied by denunciation of evil deeds and doers. Both meetings and expression of such sentiments are things quite new. One district of the city has long been the storm

center of the ancient vendetta between the rival religions. Here took place the series of murders, barely five years ago, which might have resulted in a serious massacre had it not been for the presence of two American men-of-war sent by President Roosevelt. As it was, thousands of Christians fled from the city, which did not resume its normal business life for weeks. A few days after the Constitution was promulgated the Moslem roughs marched with banners to this district, embraced their Christian enemies, invited them to a feast in the Square near the Barracks, and, the invitation being accepted, served them with their own hands. Later the compliment was returned. These are but examples of many similar feasts. At one meeting soldiers and Armenians exchanged the noblest sentiments. Such high pressure of fervor cannot last—the day's bulletins sound like chapters from Isaiah—but we may hope that there may be a settling down to a tolerant *modus vivendi* instead of a reaction into something worse than the past has shown.

The grounds for skepticism are many. The revolution was distinctly of a military origin and character, and its very completeness is terrifying. Will the army seek to control parliament as it controls the administration? And will it be selfish and narrow in its aim? The old regime was harsh and bad for officers and soldiers, and that was why it was so easily overthrown. But if the army should be unreasonable in its demands there will be friction and discord, and the constitution may prove a paper of little moment. In the second place, the revolutionary societies are secret and small bodies, and even today the identity of the leaders of the movement is unknown. In the third place, the masses of the people seem to be rather indifferent at bottom to the freedom that has been gained for them. Or, rather, they fail to appreciate it and may not defend it in the event of an assault and counter-revolution. Finally, the racial composition of the Turkish population is such that under genuine constitutionalism other races, Christian chiefly, would have greater power and influence than the Turks themselves. It is asked whether it is reasonable to expect the latter to yield supremacy to the other races. If they will not yield, the parliament will not be representative, and racial conflicts will spring up again.

The world, however, is hoping for the best, and meantime the events already witnessed possess the greatest significance as further evidence of a new spirit in the East and

of a capacity for progress and emulation of the West. The completion and opening of a railroad from Damascus to Medina, a distance of six hundred miles, and the projected extension of the line to Mecca, also attest Turkish growth and energy. The opening of Arabia to civilization and the taming of the fanatical and proud tribes will tend to unify Turkey and strengthen it both in a military and economic way.



Complications in Morocco and European Peace

A contributor to the series of articles on "International War or Peace?" now appearing in this magazine, has set forth the essential facts of the Moroccan situation in its relation to "world politics" and the present "equilibrium of Europe," which is generally regarded as comparatively stable. Only a few weeks ago, however, a sudden act on the part of the German government introduced a new complication and revived the talk, if not the actual danger, of war in Europe over the Moorish "inheritance."

As the readers are aware, the campaign of French and Spanish armies for the pacification of the disturbed ports and surrounding territory in Morocco has been conducted under the Algeciras treaty and in behalf of all the powers that participated in the Algeciras congress. The sole object of the campaign has been to suppress anti-foreign outbreaks and secure peace and order in the kingdom. Unfortunately another campaign was for many months carried on in the interior, a campaign for the overthrow of the "sultan of record," Abdul Aziz, with whom the powers had dealt and who had been the legitimate and somewhat progressive ruler of Morocco, by his half-brother, Mulai Hafid, a claimant to the throne. France and Spain refrained from penetrating the interior or from "taking sides" in that war, although the pretender was threatening to proclaim a "holy war" against Christians and pledging himself to the more fanatical tribesmen to repudiate the concessions that had been made by the "weak ruler" to the powers of Europe.

Non-interference on the part of Europe may have been the wisest policy, but has not been a policy free from dangers and difficulties. At first the pretender seemed doomed to defeat, and after some reverses the powers treated him as a mere disturber. Delegates he sent to the various capitals, to ask for a hearing, were denied official recognition. But the fortunes of war finally began to favor him, and tribe after tribe enlisted under his banner. Finally he triumphed and drove the "sultan of record" out of the capital and into virtual isolation. He was proclaimed sultan, and the question of his recognition by the powers was revived. That recognition was inevitable was clear to all, but on what terms and conditions? France insisted that he must pledge himself to respect and abide by the Algeciras treaty and other conventions limiting the power of Morocco and placing it under European control. Germany, to assert its independence, unexpectedly issued a note urging immediate recognition and sent its minister to the court of the successful pretender. This action has been variously construed and severely criticised in British, Belgian and other organs of opinion. It seemed to involve a repudiation of the concert of the powers and the Algeciras treaty. It seemed to threaten a clash with France. It indicated a desire to "fish in troubled waters" and gain the good will of the new sultan for Germany. At this writing the incident is not regarded as closed, though an understanding between France and Germany is generally expected. Possibly the moral effect of the episode in Morocco is all that Germany intended to "realize" by her move. The alarm it caused, however, illustrates the essential instability of the world's peace even today.



The Aeroplane and the Conquest of the Air

Is human invention to take another great stride and register another revolutionary change in transportation and locomotion? Is the old problem of "flying machines" at last to be solved?

A few weeks ago the layman, the naval and army expert and even the cautious scientist were disposed to answer these questions with great confidence—and affirmatively. The wonderful records of Count Zeppelin of Germany, of Farnam, the French-Scotch air navigator, of Delagrange, the Frenchman, and especially of the Wright Brothers of this country, seemed to justify such confidence. "The conquest of the air" was the theme of enthusiastic editorials and interviews galore, and many were discussing the military aspects and results of such conquest, as well as the commercial possibilities of "aviation." German, French, Belgian and other companies were announced for the construction and use of airships in ordinary travel from Paris to Berlin or London. Another year or two, it was said, and airships will be so perfected that passengers will prefer them to ships and trains and automobiles.

But certain tragic accidents—the sudden destruction of the splendid Zeppelin dirigible balloon after a record-breaking journey over the lakes and mountains; the disaster of the Wright aeroplane at Fort Myer, with the death of Lieut. Selfridge, the severe injuries to the inventor and the wrecking of the machine in which it resulted, and a number of minor failures and difficulties—have induced soberer and more moderate views of the "aerial situation."

The new records and achievements are wonderful indeed, and they not only show how much progress there has been in aeronautics in the last year or so but how much further progress we may reasonably expect in the near future.

The "record" for the dirigible balloon is thirteen hours in the air and a flight from Berlin to Magdeburg and back, with a two-hours' stop in the air. The aeroplane record is over ninety minutes in the air and the covering of sixty-one miles. It has been demonstrated that heavier-than-air machines can be kept afloat and directed with ease and facility high above the ground. In principle the flight problem has thus been solved, but from any practical point of view the solution is still far off. The dirigible balloon is subject to too many accidents. The aeroplane, which has greater

possibilities according to inventors and men of science, is still nothing more than a toy or promise. It requires high rates of speed, and speed multiplies the chances of disaster and loss of life. Neither war nor commerce can do much with an invention that is so uncertain and so dangerous, and which requires rare skill, rare courage and rare presence of mind. There are thus many difficulties yet to be overcome, especially as regards questions of carrying capacity of airships, regulation of speed, prevention of fatal accidents, etc. Much of the current talk respecting "war in the air" and immediate provision for aerial fleets for defence and offence is highly fanciful and speculative. But the interest in the subject is as legitimate as it is wide. We seem to be on the eve of tremendous developments in the theory and practice of aeronautics.

Note and Comment

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES.

The "parliament of man and federation of the world" seems not so remote as bristling armaments would indicate when the many international congresses which are held annually are duly considered. Not only are international peace congresses an admitted factor in the friendship of nations but the gatherings of scientists, scholars, commercial bodies and the like are also significant and influential. Two such important congresses were held in September in addition to the gathering to celebrate the dedication of the bureau of Central American Republics which we note elsewhere. The first congress of the International White Cross Association opened at Geneva, Switzerland, on September 8. This congress was the result of an effort to group the work of the international societies engaged in fighting tuberculosis, cancer and other epidemic diseases; also social scourges, such as alcoholism and the drug habit, as well as food adulteration.

On September 22 the fourth international fisheries congress met at Washington. Many foreign countries and practically every state and territory in the Union were represented.



THE PEACE MOVEMENT.

The Congress of Universal Peace held its seventeenth session in London this year. Its principal resolutions were to the effect that order should be reestablished in Morocco as soon as possible; that in nations of mixed nationality the language of

the conquered nation shall be granted the greatest possible equality with that of the conquering nation; arbitration must be made obligatory, that a peace agitation be carried on among academic students, as has already been done by "Corda Fratres"; that the governments follow the lead of Great Britain and provide funds for international hospitality; that private property shall not be captured at sea; that the working people of the nations shall be invited to join the peace movement, and finally that all money contributions will be thankfully received at the Berne Peace Bureau, Berne, Switzerland.

In September the Interparliamentary Union met in Berlin. The Union was founded by the late William Randall Cremer, in 1888, and has had nineteen meetings. It consists of 2,500 members of the 15,000 men who sit in the national parliaments of the world. The American delegates were headed by Hon. Richard Bartholdt, of Missouri, who was later elected vice-president of the Union. Chancellor Von Bülow opened the session with a remarkable speech, which gave the lie to the rumors current in the English press of late that Germany was preparing for war. A telegram was received from the Kaiser, stating that he hoped the work of the Union would bear fruit. Mr. Bartholdt introduced two resolutions, one having to do with the right of each nation to perpetual possession of its undisputed territory and sovereignty therein; the other with the selection of an international arbitration court, and the best form of a national arbitration treaty. Representative Bartholdt's resolutions were referred to a committee, who will report back at a future meeting of the Union.

England has announced that she will hereafter contribute annually \$1,500 to the Interparliamentary Union, and it is expected that all the other national groups will request their governments to do the same. Minister Hill gave a luncheon to the American group; a letter from Mr. Carnegie to Mr. Bartholdt was read, suggesting that if the Kaiser would form an alliance with England and the United States, they could stop war by force; and then the Union adjourned to meet next year in Quebec. On the same day an imposing German workmen's peace demonstration was held in Berlin. Some 20,000 German workmen were assembled to welcome a delegation of English workmen, and great enthusiasm was expressed on both sides when the English delegates presented an address requesting the Germans to co-operate with them in furthering the cause of arbitration.

Germany and Italy have jointly requested Holland to call a second conference of the Powers who were represented at the last Hague Conference to take part in another conference at The Hague probably in 1909, to discuss international exchange.
—*From the Independent.*



GROWING POWER OF EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

The unification of Germany which has been the triumph of German statesmanship during the last half century is not as complete as it may ultimately become. In accordance with the agreements of succession, failure in the male line of descent in the royal and ducal houses now reigning in the states constituting the German Empire,

results in some instances in the lands of those houses coming directly into the possession of Emperor William, as King of Prussia. In a number of the important states male heirs are but sparsely represented and a change of the succession is, therefore, probable in the not remote future. Eleven of the twenty-two dynasties which rule the states forming the German Empire are threatened with extinction, among them being: Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Baden, Hesse, Oldenburg, Saxe-Altenburg, and Saxe-Weimar.



PEACE AND HARMONY IN CENTRAL AMERICA.

On September 15, President Cabrera, of Guatemala, formally opened the International Bureau of Central American Republics, an institution which should do much to promote international peace and welfare among the Latin American countries.

The new bureau was established by a convention signed by the representatives of the five republics at the Central American Peace Conference, held at Washington, last winter. Its object is the development of the interests common to Central America. President Estrada Cabrera spoke of the necessity of the bureau, his desire for peace in Central America and expressed his firm determination to establish the obligations under which the contracting governments placed themselves to the United States and Mexico, which are regarded as ample assurance that the terms of the convention will be carried out. The chief executive's absolute neutrality in the last revolution in Honduras, and his prompt recognition of the court of justice at Cartago, Costa Rica, another outgrowth of the peace conference, are pointed out as abundant proof of his attitude.

The International Bureau of Central American Republics will occupy a relationship to the latter countries similar to that which the International Bureau of American Republics now bears to those of the Latin-American continent. Special effort will be made to reorganize peacefully the states of Central America and to impress on public education an essentially Central American character, in a uniform sense, making it as broad, practical and complete as possible, in accordance with modern tendencies. The development of the commerce of the signatories to the convention to make it more active and profitable and to promote agricultural industries is one of the things which the new bureau will strive to accomplish. One of the important objects will be to make uniform the civil, commercial and criminal legislation of the five republics, recognizing as fundamental principles the inviolability of life, respect for property and the sacredness of personal rights.

Uniformity in the system of custom houses, in the monetary system, in such a manner as to obtain a fixed rate of exchange, and general sanitation is also to be arranged.

The bureau will be a medium of intelligence among the signatories, and will issue to the respective countries all reports and information necessary for the development of the relations and interests intrusted to it. While independent of the international bureau at Washington, the one established in Guatemala City will maintain intercourse with the latter. The expenses for the maintenance of the new institution will be paid in equal parts by the countries constituting it.

throughout the world, with the principles of the Christian system. This was really the beginning of the modern movement. In Great Britain about the same time a similar feeling sprang up, growing out of the impression left by what Lord Russell called "the most bloody hostilities that ever mangled the face of Europe," that the hour had come when something should be done to redeem humanity from the blighting curse of war. In 1814, Mr. William Allen, a philanthropic citizen of London, belonging to the Society of Friends, who had for some years been pondering over the subject, called together some of his friends to consider the expediency of organizing a Peace Society. So great was the interest shown at this meeting that a committee was formed to draw up a plan of action. The campaign which ended in Waterloo the next year prevented, however, the consummation of the plan, and nothing was done at the time.

In the meantime Dr. Noah Worcester published on Christmas Day in 1814 in Boston his famous pamphlet, "A Solemn Review of the Custom of War." This "Solemn Review" came like a trumpet to the churches on both sides of the Atlantic. Several editions of it were published in this country and likewise in England, and it made a great impression. In New York, David L. Dodge had written another pamphlet entitled, "War Inconsistent with the Religion of Jesus Christ," and in August, 1815, there was organized in his parlor the first Peace Society that ever existed. The same year, on the second of December, the Ohio Peace Society was formed, and on the twenty-sixth of December, the Massachusetts Peace Society. Among the signers of the constitution of the Massachusetts Society, which soon took the lead in the new movement, were the Governor and Lieutenant Governor of the State, Dr. William E. Channing, Dr. Noah Worcester and several professors of Harvard College, including the president, Dr. Kirkland.

The next year, 1816, Mr. Allen called together in London the committee which had been appointed two years before, but which had done little during the preceding twelve months, and it was decided immediately to organize a

society. The organization was completed on the fourteenth of June, 1816, four days before the first anniversary of Waterloo, and the new organization was christened "The Society for the Promotion of Universal and Permanent Peace." This society, now called simply the Peace Society, has continued its labors ever since, and is today one of the foremost agencies in the advancement of the cause.

On both sides of the water the movement thus started developed with great rapidity. In the United Kingdom branch societies were organized in Scotland, Ireland, Wales, the Channel Islands, and even in Canada, as well as in England. In the United States new societies sprang into existence all up and down the Atlantic coast. In France the Society of Christian Morals was organized in 1821 on the suggestion of the president of the New York Peace Society.

The most distinguished man connected with the peace movement in this its earliest stage was William Ladd, whose widely extended, unremitting and efficient labors for a quarter of a century justly won him the title of "The American Apostle of Peace." Mr. Ladd was a graduate of Harvard University and had become wealthy as a sea-captain. At Minot, Maine, he had first associated himself with the peace cause, and in the years which followed he devoted his whole strength and fortune to the work. In 1828 when Peace Societies throughout the East had become numerous, he succeeded in bringing them together in a national association and thus was organized on the eighth of May that year, in New York City, the American Peace Society. This Society has continued its work ever since, first in New York, then in Hartford, and from 1837 on in Boston, from which city it is at the present time carrying on more vigorous and widely extended labors than at any previous period in its history. This first great wave of interest in peace continued in full vigor until the years just preceding the breaking out of the Civil War. By 1835 every county in Connecticut had a Peace Society, and there were many in other States. The work of the British Peace Society extended in like manner to all parts of the United Kingdom. Many of the leading

The modern series of Peace Congresses began in 1889 at Paris at the time of the Exposition. The sixteen subsequent Congresses have been held in London, Rome, Berne, Chicago, Antwerp, Budapest, Hamburg, Glasgow, Monaco, Rouen, Boston, Lucerne, Milan, Munich, and London, where the Seventeenth International Peace Congress, just held, under the presidency of Lord Courtney, has been one of the greatest peace demonstrations ever made. These Congresses have been presided over by such eminent persons as David Dudley Field, Signor Bonghi, of the Italian Parliament, Louis Ruchonnet, twice President of the Swiss Republic, Senator Houzeau de Lehaie of Belgium, Dr. Adolph Richter of Germany, Dr. Charles Richet of the Medical Faculty of Paris, Dr. Robert Spence Watson, the most distinguished labor arbitrator in England, Hon. Robert Treat Paine of Boston, etc. They have been welcomed in the great cities where they have met by the municipal authorities and in a number of recent cases by the national governments themselves. The President of the French Republic was Honorary President of the Paris Congress of 1900. The Boston Congress in 1904 was opened, as is well known, by a notable address by the late John Hay, Secretary of State, who went to the Congress with the hearty approval of the President. The Congress at Milan in 1906 was welcomed to Italy, in the name of the King and the Government, by the Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. The recent London Congress was given a banquet by the British Government, at which the Prime Minister was the chief speaker, a part of the newly created Hospitality Fund being used in this way; and a deputation from the Congress, on which were representatives from all the countries participating, was given a most cordial reception by King Edward and the Queen.

It will thus be seen that the peace movement has gradually won its way to the governments themselves and now receives the hearty support of the municipal and national authorities wherever international peace gatherings are held.

In 1891 the first steps were taken at the Peace Congress in Rome towards the establishment of an International Peace

Bureau, the organization of which was completed the next year and its headquarters placed at Berne, Switzerland. This Bureau, under the wise and able direction of the late M. Elie Ducommun, secretary of a great Swiss railway company, has proved to be a most useful medium of intercommunication between the Peace Societies in different nations, and an efficient agent in executing, with the governments and otherwise, the resolutions adopted annually at the Peace Congresses. The Bureau is managed by a Commission now numbering thirty-five members, appointed from the most prominent peace workers in different countries. At least four of the smaller European Governments have for several years made an official annual contribution toward the expenses of the Bureau, in recognition of its most valuable services in promoting international friendship.

Among the most efficient of the peace organizations is the Interparliamentary Union, founded in 1889 by William Randal Cremer, M. P., with the aid of Frederic Passy, for the promotion, in the parliaments of the different countries, of the cause of international good-will and the settlement of international controversies by arbitration and other pacific means. Beginning with a few members of the English and French Parliaments, who had first met at Paris in 1888 to discuss the question of an arbitration treaty between Great Britain and France, the Union has grown now to a membership of about 2,500. The groups of this Union in some of the parliaments contain a majority of the members of the Lower House and, in two or three cases, of the Senate likewise. The United States group, of which the Hon. Richard Bartholdt of Missouri is President, numbers at the present time about two hundred Representatives and Senators. The meetings of this Union in the different countries are among the most notable international events of our time. The St. Louis Conference in 1904 will always be memorable in the history of the International Peace Movement. The delegates came at the invitation and as the guests of our government and were entertained at its expense, Congress having appropriated fifty thousand dollars for this purpose, the first time

in the history of the world that so much money was ever appropriated by any Government for the pure purpose of peace-making. It was on the suggestion of this Conference also, in an interview of its delegates with him, that President Roosevelt issued the first call for the Second Hague Conference.

The London meeting of the Union, two years later, which is equally famous for its conclusions, was welcomed to Westminster Hall by the British Prime Minister himself, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, in a notable speech. This Conference more than any other one influence gave direction to the program of the Second Hague Conference. The Conference of the Union which has just closed its sessions in Berlin, was welcomed to the German capital, in the name of the Emperor and the government by Prince von Buelow, the Imperial Chancellor, and was given a reception in the Schloss by the Crown Prince on behalf of the Emperor.

The groups of this distinguished body of statesmen, the most important unofficial organization of public men in the world, act as powerful bulwarks in the different parliaments of the world against war panics and war legislation, and it is safe to say that it will be very difficult hereafter for any two nations whose legislators are united in this Union and working together for the common ends of international justice and friendly relations to become embroiled in hostilities.

It is frequently supposed that the work of the Peace Societies and the Peace Congresses has been wholly theoretical and sentimental, and not practical. It is true that in the early decades of their work these societies, from the necessities of the case, had to expose the irrationality, the cruelty and the horrors of the scourge of war, and to discuss the subject of peace from the idealistic point of view. This was done by Channing, Worcester, Ladd, Burritt, Dodge, Garrison, Sumner, Jay, by Richard Cobden, John Bright, Henry Richard, and others, with a thoroughness which has left nothing to say in that direction since. But these men did not stop here. They were not merely idealists and visionaries. From the very beginning they proposed judicial substitutes for war, and they argued for the adoption of these with the same clear-



"Fatherland." From the Painting by Georges Bertrand.



"The Last Cannon." From the Painting by A. J. Wiertz, 1855, Brussels.

ness and thoroughness with which they had set forth the evils, injustices and wickedness of the system which they had undertaken to undermine and overthrow. Anyone who will take the pains to look up and read the petitions and memorials sent to the State Legislatures and to our National Congress by the Massachusetts and other Peace Societies as early as 1816 and 1817, and those of the American Peace Society in the years following its organization in 1828, will find that every argument for arbitration as a settled method of dealing with international disputes and for an International Congress and High Court of Nations, on which so much stress has recently been laid, was used in those early papers.

The group of essays on a Congress of Nations, by William Ladd and others, written in response to an offer of a prize of one thousand dollars made by the American Peace Society, and published in 1840, left practically nothing to be said in favor of the very institutions which the Hague Conferences are now creating. A distinguished authority on International Law has recently said that it would hardly be too much to call William Ladd, whose Essay on "A Congress and Court of Nations" is famous in the history of the literature of peace, "The Father of the Hague Conferences," so nearly did the work of the Second Hague Conference follow the lines laid down by Ladd in its work for a Permanent International Court of Arbitral Justice, for periodic meetings of the Hague Conference, and for a general treaty of obligatory arbitration. From their very beginning the Peace Congresses urged arbitration as the rational method of settling international controversies. As the movement progressed, they were the first to urge that the temporary tribunals set up to dispose of disputes as they arose should be superseded by a permanent international tribunal, whose decisions would become authoritative and thus promote the development and codification of international law, and whose systematic work would necessarily in time secure the confidence of the various governments and thus make easy the appeal to arbitral justice instead of to the sword.

Very soon after its organization the Interparliamentary Union, as well as the Peace Congresses, began to direct its chief efforts toward the establishment of a Permanent International Tribunal of Arbitration. At the meeting of the Conference in Brussels in 1895 a committee of eminent members of the Union was appointed to draft a plan for the organization of such a tribunal. Similar plans had been drawn before by individuals and by committees, as will be seen by consulting Dr. W. E. Darby's volume, entitled "International Tribunals," in which the Secretary of the London Peace Society brings together a list of all the schemes of this kind which had been devised up to the time of the First Hague Conference. One of the most important of these plans was that drafted by a committee of the New York State Bar Association. This and the plan drawn up by the committee of the Interparliamentary Union probably had more to do than any other single influence with the plan produced by the First Hague Conference for the establishment of the Permanent International Court of Arbitration. The calling of the First Hague Conference is probably also due, as much as to any one thing, to the Conference of the Interparliamentary Union at Budapest in 1896, to which the Tzar of Russia had sent an official messenger to report to him what the Conference was doing and what its chief purpose was. The report of his messenger as to the eminence of the men at the Budapest Conference and the practical nature of their work hastened the Tzar of Russia in deciding, what he had already for some time had in mind, to call a conference of the nations to deal with the problem of the rivalry of armaments and that of substitutes for war in the settling of international differences.

It is in place here to call attention to the fact that the idea of a Pan-American Congress to promote more intimate trade relations and more friendly intercourse between the republics of the Western Hemisphere, originated, not, as has been supposed, at Washington, but with the American Peace Society. For several years prior to the calling of the first Pan-American Conference by Mr. Blaine memorials were sent annually to Washington by the above-named society,

urging the desirability of such a conference of representatives of all the American states. The Pan-American Conferences have been most powerful in promoting the cause of international peace. They have resulted in the International Union of the American Republics, with its permanent and well-organized Bureau at Washington, the corner-stone of a worthy building for which was recently laid with such impressive ceremonies. It is not boasting, but simple fact, to say that nearly every great step which has so far been officially taken by the governments to bring the nations together into a more rational system of dealing with their mutual interests was first suggested by the peace organizations, and these organizations have been the first to rally to the support of the governments in every step taken by them for the organization of the world in a manner to make war more difficult, and to secure justice, in all cases of dispute, by judicial methods.

At the present time all of the peace organizations, including the Interparliamentary Union and the Mohonk Arbitration Conference, are devoting their chief energies to bring to complete realization the measures which have already been so far advanced by the deliberations and conclusions of the two Hague Conferences. They continue, of course, their propaganda in behalf of the pacific education of the peoples of the different countries. They are carrying their propaganda into universities and colleges, the public schools, chambers of commerce, boards of trade, and into every kind of religious, social and literary society through which the people in their various localities may be most effectively reached. The Mohonk Conference, one of the leading peace agencies of the world, has secured the co-operation, in its promotion of arbitration, of no less than one hundred chambers of commerce and two hundred universities and colleges; and the Intercollegiate Peace Association, founded only three years ago, has already groups in forty-seven universities and colleges.

It is most interesting to note that the practical measures urged from the beginning by the peace organizations for the establishment of universal and permanent peace are coming to realization with a rapidity which has surprised even the

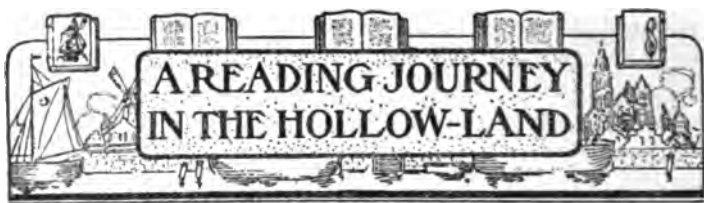
most sanguine of the peacemakers. The decade which saw the first Peace Societies organized saw also the first practical application of the principle of arbitration to the settlement of controversies between sovereign and independent nations. The arbitrations between governments have likewise increased in number in about the same proportion as the Peace Societies have multiplied and extended their influence. By 1850 there had been only about thirty cases of settlement of disputes by this means, but in the last decade of the nineteenth century there were above sixty, or an average of more than six per year for the whole ten years. Since the present century opened, eight years ago, there have been more than sixty international arbitrations.

The whole number of cases of arbitration within the past hundred years now exceeds two hundred and fifty, and the number is about double that, if settlements by commissions which are not formally arbitrations be reckoned in. In all these cases, however delicate the questions involved, the award of arbitrators has always been loyally accepted and carried out. This is a record, the significance of which it is not easy fully to understand.

It is scarcely more than a dozen years since practical work for a Permanent Court of International Arbitration began. Within that time we have seen the Hague Court established, its work successfully begun and its prestige already thoroughly established throughout the world. We have seen the Central American states unite in an international court of justice, the first of its kind to be anywhere set up. In less than five years more than sixty treaties of obligatory arbitration of a limited character have been concluded between the civilized nations two and two, the most recent being the twelve treaties negotiated by Secretary Root and ratified by the United States Senate before the recent adjournment of Congress.

The Second Hague Conference carried the principle of a general treaty of obligatory arbitration a long way toward complete and universal acceptance. It also practically realized the dream of Ladd, Burritt and Sumner of a Congress

and Court of Nations, in deciding that the Hague Conference shall hereafter meet periodically, and in approving unanimously the principle of a Permanent International Court of Arbitral Justice, which only awaits an agreement among the governments, as to the method of appointing the judges, to become an established fact. Thus the ideals of the advocates of peace of the first half of the nineteenth century are becoming the realities of today. The Peace Societies, which in the beginning were either scoffed at or totally ignored are now respected and honored. The Nobel Peace Prize, founded by Mr. Alfred Nobel at the suggestion of the distinguished Austrian peace leader, the Baroness von Suttner, and given each year to the individual or society who has done the most during the year to promote international peace, is considered the highest honor even by the heads of the greatest powers. Kings and emperors and presidents of republics delight to place among their highest titles that of Peacemaker. The Peace Societies have won. The movement which they brought into being and nursed from weakness and obscurity into strength and public honor has now extended itself vastly beyond their limits, and is taking a deep and wide and powerful hold alike upon the masses of the peoples and upon statesmen and governments themselves. Its culmination in the organization and settled peace of the world and the consequent arrest and reduction of armaments is only a question of a few swift years.



Part III. Art, Ancient and Modern—Sports —Skating—A Wedding—Courtship*

By George Wharton Edwards.

CERTAINLY no one can fully appreciate the art of the great Dutch masters till he has seen the country in which they lived and painted. For theirs are pictures which have grown out of the very soil, which have been painted by men who were content to paint the portrait of their own country, artists who could "descry abundant worth in trivial commonplace." The Dutch school is the exponent of everyday life; it has no aspirations after the great and glorious, the mysterious, or the unseen. Nature, as seen in Holland, either out of doors or in the house, is the one inspiration of its art. We are in the domain of naturalism. We must not suppose, however, that the Dutch school in its realistic character, presents nothing but a brutal materialism, and never rises above the delineation of drunken boors at a village inn. There is a truthfulness in the Dutch pictures which commands admiration. It has been well said that "A dead tree by Ruisdael may touch a heart, a bull by Paul Potter may speak eloquently, a kitchen by Kalf may contain a poem." All the painters of this school confine themselves to loving, understanding, and representing Nature, each one adding his own feelings and taste—in fact, adding his individuality. This love of Nature

*Copyright 1908 by George Wharton Edwards. Parts I. and II. treating respectively the Origin and Characteristics of Holland appeared in the September and October numbers.

is specially manifested in those landscapes and sea-pieces in which the Dutch school excels. Visiting various parts of Holland, in different kinds of weather, we shall see how each painter identifies himself with the special aspect which he depicts. A barren, gloomy landscape under a leaden sky, unrelieved by a living creature, its grim monotony only broken by a waterfall or a dead tree, at once shows us Jacob Van Ruisdael, the "Melancholy Jacques," of landscape painters, who finds "tongues in trees, books in the running brooks, sermons in stones." A bright, early morning, when the sun flashes merrily on white sail and glancing streams, and the fat black and white cattle are browsing knee-deep in the rich meadows reminds us of the lover of light, Albert Cuyp. A warm afternoon, when the shadows of the fruit trees lie across the orchards, and an ox or horse or some other animal lies in the grateful shade, tells us of Paul Potter, the Raphael of modern painters, the La Fontaine of artists. An evening landscape, where amid the grazing cattle, some rustic "Meliboeus sports with Amaryllis in the shade," and presents an idyll such as a Dutch Virgil might have written recalls Adrian Van der Velde. A still pond, with the moon reflected on its surface and a few cottages nearly hidden by the dark alder and poplar trees, brings before us the painter of the night, Van der Neer. The sea-shore with high-stemmed Dutch ships sailing over the waves, is the favorite haunt of Willem Van der Velde; a river flowing on towards the horizon, and reflecting a dull gray sky, recalls Van Goyen; and if we look on a frozen canal, crowded with skaters, Isack Van Ostade stands confessed. And this is not only true of landscape and sea pictures; the everyday life of Holland is identified in its various phases with different painters of this school. Owing to the changes which time and fashion make, we shall not find in the streets the "Night Watch" of Rembrandt, or the "Banquet" of Van der Helst in the town hall, the long satin robes of Ter Borch, the plumed cavaliers of Wouverman, or the drunken peasants of Adriaan Van Ostade. And if, in passing through a Dutch town we see a young girl leaning on the old balustrade of a window, surrounded with ivy and

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geraniums, we may still recognize Gerard Dou. In the peaceful interior of a Gothic house where an old woman is spinning and which is lighted by the warm rays of the sun, we see Pieter de Hooch. How did such a body of painters contrive to spring from such an unromantic and distressful period as the latter half of the sixteenth century, from so small a country, and during the time of life and death struggle known as the eighty years' war, when the fortunes of the nation reached their lowest ebb? The enigma is still unsolved. The artists followed one another in quick succession.

Born in		Born in	
Frans Hals.....	1580	Paul Potter.....	1625
Van Honthorst..	1590	Jan Steen.....	1626
Adriaen Brouwer....	1605	Jacob van Ruysdael....	1628
Rembrandt.....	1606	De Hooch and Metsu...	1630
Jan Lievens.....	1607	Nicholas Maes and Ver-	
Adriaan van Ostade....	1610	meer.....	1632
Van der Helst.....	1611	Adrian van der Velde...	1635
Gerard Dou.....	1613	Van Mieris (senior)....	1635
Govert Flinck.....	1615	Hondecoeter.....	1636
Ferdinand Bol.....	1616	Van der Heyden.....	1637
Ter Borch.....	1617	Hobbema.....	1638
Wouwerman.....	1619	Jan Weenix.....	1640
Albert Cuyp.....	1620		

The earliest dawn of art in modern Europe, as shown in fresco and distemper, is found on the southern side of the Alps; but painting in oil, the art which glows on the canvas of a Raphael, a Titian, or a Rembrandt, had its origin in the Netherlands. Most authorities from the days of Vasari have credited the discovery of oil painting to the brothers Van Eyck, who painted at the Hague, Ghent and Bruges, during the latter part of the fourteenth and the early part of the fifteenth century. But they were not the first artists of the Netherlands in point of time. For centuries the churches had been filled with paintings which seemed to have possessed considerable merit. (Davies' "Holland.") The moist climate, however, worked destruction to most of the wall productions. The churches of Italy with their wide walls and broad roof spaces afforded scope for fresco decoration which was



By the North Sea, Evening.



Fishing Boat Homeward Bound. Volendam, Holland.



A Holland Scene.



Bringing in Fagots, Winter.



By the Wharf.



Beaching the Fishing Boat.



On a Dutch Canal.



A Picturesque Costume.



Washday.



A Substantial Citizen.



North Sea Fishermen, Holland.



Type of Dutch Fisherman.



A Dutch Boer or Farmer.



Fisherwoman, Scheveningen.



Old Peasant Woman With Bible and Lamp.



Volendam Peasants in Winter Dress.



Skaters in Winter Dress. Goes.



Typical Landscape in the Interior of Holland.



Windmill, Zaandam.

wanting in the structures of a Gothic type. Hence, the Netherland paintings were of a different class, being smaller and mostly executed on wooden panels. The ground work of the panel was prepared with a thin coating of fine plaster and upon this coating were laid the colors mixed with the white of an egg or the juice of unripe figs. Oil was employed but its use was attended with great disadvantages. It was difficult to lay the colors finely with it and they took a long time to dry. For this reason it was never used in the finished part of the work but only for large masses of drapery and the like. The great objection to this process lay in the fact, not then discovered to its full extent, however, that in time the whole mass flaked off, leaving nothing but the bare surface of the panel. The Van Eyck brothers mixed some substance, probably resin, with boiled oil, and found that they had a medium which dried quickly and with which the finest and most delicate work could be accomplished. The plaster on the panel was interpenetrated with this varnish and the whole wrought so finely together that at last the surface became like enamel and it is generally next to impossible to detect the traces of the brush. (See Conway's "Early Flemish Artists," also Burger's well-known book on the "Musees de la Hollande," in which Dutch painting is most exhaustively treated.)

Of the modern school of painting numerous examples are scattered all over Holland. In Rotterdam at Boyman's Museum are some splendid examples, also Teyler's Museum at Haarlem. Examples of Mesdag, the painter of the sea, are found in nearly all cities. He paints the sea in its prevailing tones of gray. Israels paints his figures with great power in both oil and water color, and his pictures appeal to the imagination from the very simplicity of composition. They are quiet, even melancholy in sentiment, depicting scenes of poverty with great feeling. Anton Mauve lived near Muiderburg on the Zuider Zee and had a great love for sheep. There is a deliciously cool and exquisite touch in all his work. No other artist of our time has painted so sympathetically that soft, violet gray light which envelopes the landscape and the creamy dunes, crested with sparse grass tufts,

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and the feathery trees of North Holland. Roelaf's landscapes should be seen and studied. Also the interior views of the Dutch churches by Bosbooms. The brothers Maris who painted an enormous number of pictures and whose paintings are in nearly every prominent collection in Europe and America have upheld upon their brush points with the above-mentioned men the glory of the modern art of the Netherlands. Pieneman was a most assiduous worker with tendencies toward the heroic school of Jordeans of Antwerp, much of whose work is to be seen in Holland, notably in the Orange Room at the Huis ten Bosch, Hague. His most ambitious work is that huge canvas at the Rijks Museum, "Battle of Waterloo." It measures twenty-six feet by eighteen feet. The subject, of course, appeals to every Dutchman, for the Prince of Orange was one of the many heroes of that day. This picture was painted in 1884.

Sir L. Alma Tadema, that most distinguished Hollander whose work is well known the world over and who lives in a veritable palace in London, England, was born at Marssum, near Leewarden. He studied under the famous painter, Baron Leys, and also worked for a considerable time with his uncle, Mesdag, the marine painter.

As we have seen then, at the close of the seventeenth century the Dutch school was practically extinct and remained so for a hundred years. As these great masters came, so they went quickly and mysteriously, and although a second Rembrandt has not appeared nor a Paul Potter, yet the Netherlands has in this last-mentioned list of modern painters an academical body, yet without its restricted forms, of whom it may well be proud.

The Netherlands, of course, is a maritime nation, a nation of sailors and fishermen. The whole coast is dotted with fishing villages which are fast losing their character, and becoming fashionable watering places. Of these Scheveningen is perhaps the chief, and still maintains a large fleet of extremely picturesque fishing boats (pinkens), the cargos of which are sold by auction on the beach immediately on their arrival. I have tried in vain to understand the system of

sale, and I have often tried to describe it. The scene on such occasions is often very picturesque and highly amusing. The boats are wide and deep and open in the center of the ribs, and only decked fore and aft. On each side are huge "lee boards," for the boats are flat-bottomed. They are of one mast and carry a jib and mainsail, dyed deep, golden brown. There is no paint used on the bodies of the boats save a strip of the most delicate green near the "gun-wale." The hull is covered with a thick coating of hard oil, giving the wood a most beautiful appearance. To see the fleet from off shore come sailing in at full speed, all in line and run up on the sand, high and dry, is a sight worth traveling far to witness. The village people in their wonderful and varied costumes, the fathers, too aged to work, and the mothers and children await their coming in long lines on the beaches. Horses are hitched up and driven at full speed into the shallow water and made fast to long lines stretching from the bows of the boats which they pull shoreward, driven by loud cries and exclamations. Then the "patroons" or captains descend with dignity from their respective boats and mounting on the backs of some of the men, are conveyed ashore through the surf to the beach, where they await stolidly the unloading of the fish. The fishing is prosecuted with considerable success. Drag-nets or trawls, as they are called, are thrown overboard and hauled along the bottom of the shallow waters of the North Sea naturally scraping up everything in their way. Large numbers of skate are caught. Other vessels go still further, even as far as the north coast of Scotland after the herring and meet with great success. The men are splendid and sturdy specimens of their race, blond and blue-eyed with fine bronze skins, and some of them with great charm and openness of character. They are simple and loyal and treat the stranger with great courtesy and kindness. All the fishing boats are registered and numbered under the law and are controlled and watched over by the revenue cutters. Of course, there is much drinking among the men as is to be expected.

In the season there is great interest in horse racing. There are fine tracks at Rotterdam, at Amsterdam, at Woest-

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Duin near Haarlem, at Utrecht, and at Groningen. The sport has its organ, a weekly newspaper named *Hippas*. The scene at these races is often quite gay and animated, and considerable money changes hands through the presence of large bodies of strangers from Germany and Belgium.

There are many rowing and sailing clubs, the principal one being under royal patronage and called "The Royal Dutch Rowing and Sailing Club" with headquarters at Amsterdam. The outer side of the Amstel is a favorite piece of water for the racing of small craft; while the Ij and the nearby Zuider Zee are used by larger boats. During the season several very successful regattas are held on the River Ij. The official organ which may be studied for particulars is the *Nederlandsche Sport*.

To the cyclist, the signs everywhere seen through Holland bearing the word "Wielrijders" (cyclists) should be carefully regarded if followed by the word "Verboden" (forbidden), for the Dutchman is not always patient with the foreigner at any infringement of the law. The official touring club is called the "Alg. Ned. Wielrijdersbond." This is a most flourishing well-established association, and under its laws has resulted in the manifest improvement of the roadways. All through the country are seen sign and distance posts emblazoned with the familiar, winged wheel, and fixed charges are maintained at the different hotels. The sign for the hotel is "Bonds-Hotel." The distances marked on the post are in kilometers. The automobile is now a common sight through Holland. I well remember my own experience in the first machine perhaps which the "Vollendamers" had ever seen and which came up from Amsterdam purposely to deposit me at "Spanders." And the throngs of excited peasants, shaken for the nonce out of their usual apathy. The machine was a noisy red one and the petroleum gases forming in the exhaust suddenly igniting went off with the noise of a small cannon, at which the excited Mynheers promptly withdrew their hands from their capacious pockets, shut their eyes, closed their mouths and seizing their children by the shoulders or anything they could get hold of, promptly fled to a safe

distance. Me they regarded as a being miraculously endowed with unheard of courage and protected by the wing of some sweet little cherub from his seat up aloft, and as such entitled to a new distinction and respect. The chauffeur they regarded as some sort of monster removed from their ken, and when he gruffly spoke to them in their own tongue they refused to believe the evidence of their ears and only stared, and when he turned the machine with great skill in the narrow roadway by the canal and opened the throttle, vanishing noisily in a cloud of dust, they remained standing one and all spellbound and speechless, so that I had to carry my own traps to the little stairway which I mounted and along the raised pathway until I met the hospitable Spander who welcomed me with open arms. But the Dutchman is now very familiar with the automobile and regards it with a certain degree of contempt, considering it only in the light of its occupants and as furnishing him with extra gulden. Indeed the demands of the modern Dutchman upon the gulden of the inexperienced traveler are only limited by the latter's willingness to disgorge. This will be, I think, sufficient warning.

Intending visitors to Holland in the winter will do well to join one of the skating clubs to be found in every town, as the sport is most popular throughout the country. Nearly all the larger clubs are members of the Dutch Skating Association or the "Nederlandsche Schaatsenrijdersbond," at Groningen. The Hollanders learned to skate from the Romans, and examples of the earliest skates which they used may be seen in the different museums. They were made of bones, smoothed and polished to a flat surface and were tied to the feet with strings. The scene on the rivers and canals in the winter is a most animated and interesting one, and the Dutch are completely transformed. No sooner does the ice bear than the whole people begin to glide and swirl to the poetry of motion. The canals then become the real streets. The sound of discordant organs from the merry-go-rounds is heard everywhere, and over all is the pungent odor of the stale grease from the "Poffertjes" and "Wafelen" booths, presided over by fat, bare-armed "Vrouwes" who make them with inde-

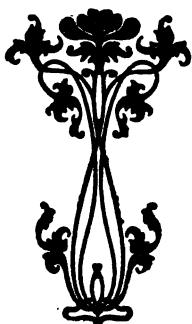
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scribable rapidity for the ravenous peasants. The first are little round pancaky blobs, twisted, cooked in grease and covered with butter and sugar. The "Wafelen" are oblong wafers stamped thinly in an iron mould, fried and also buttered and sugared. It is etiquette to eat two dozen "Poffertjes" and two of "Wafelen" at the first order. Afterwards you may eat as many as you wish. A thin, sour beer is drunk with them, or a sickly, sweet lemonade. To eat them is one's duty. To watch the cooking is a fascination. They are made by hundreds at once over a brisk, charcoal fire. The cook busies herself in twisting the little dabs of pasty dough into the moulds, and dumping out those that are cooked. One may see pictures in the museums painted by Jan Steen, showing the operation. The peasants stand in rows before these booths, eating the dainties. They are very noisy, and while one sees but little drunkenness there is very little real revelry. The Dutch take their pleasures very stolidly, and the great evidence of the "festa" is the glare of the naptha and the loud, blaring notes of the steam organs. The Dutchman, when he wearies of skating in the winter, seats himself with his "meisje" by his side on the backs of the most wonderfully carved and brilliantly painted elephants, camels, horses, griffons, in the "Carroussels" or merry-go-rounds, and will ride for hours at a time with staring eyes and open mouth in a sort of trance, until he is pulled off forcibly by the owner of the machine and made to pay up. There are numerous side-shows on the banks with two-headed boys, giant females, dwarf ponies, etc., presided over by loud-tongued barkers, but the devotee of the sport will prefer to leave these scenes behind and glide along into the country districts over the smooth ice in company with the brilliantly costumed and bright-cheeked peasantry, arriving at the next town in time for dinner, which should be ordered in advance unless the town is a large one. The skating carnival is generally the cause of many weddings among the peasantry, and if one is so happy as to be present at one of these a most interesting experience may be enjoyed. Thursday is the peasant's day for the ceremony, for on this day the very small. My Dutch friend says that on other days

it is "largely expensive" to be married. The "Koster" complains bitterly of the present economical tendency which induces so many young couples to dispense with the religious ceremony in favor of the civic marriage. My Dutch friend explains that there are several distinct decorative ceremonies at church, ranging in price from say four guilders to twenty-five and for the latter figure there are carpets and artificial flowers and trappings galore. On Thursdays, then, there are generally a number of couples at the church waiting their turn. The happy bride is brought in a high-backed "Tilbury," if in the country, the interior of which is decorated with two large mirrors in the shape of a heart lavishly trimmed with artificial white flowers, where she sits admiringly contemplated by the party. The ceremony is rattled through with great rapidity, after which the peasants depart to the nearest hotel in procession, the groom in full evening dress, and with a stolid, bored expression. He consumes vast quantities of beer, after which comes the banquet. This, it is explained, is the second ceremony, for when the preliminaries of an engagement are decided upon a betrothal dinner is held. The friends are invited to the wedding by the present of a box of sweets, or maybe a bottle of wine, popularly known as "bride's tears." On the day of the wedding the whole party imbibe generously of a certain brand of this wine, which contains small floating particles of gold-leaf. The whole party, afterwards, dance and carouse for the balance of the night. There are other strange customs pertaining to the ceremony, but perhaps they may well be left to the imagination. I was invited to one ceremony which seemed so peculiar that I cannot refrain from describing it. On this occasion I happened to meet with the Consul, an American friend, who invited me to go with him to witness a civil ceremony of marriage, which he said was most peculiar, according to our ideas. When we arrived at the house the ceremony had begun. The happy couple were standing together before the burgomaster who was empowered to perform the service. I could not understand quite what was being said, but when it was over the bride who was gorgeously arrayed with a wreath of flowers about her lace cap,

through the meshes of which shone a magnificent beaten gold head-dress with pendant diamond sparks at each side of her rosy face, and with many strings of coral beads about her throat, her figure arrayed in the Zeeland costume, shook hands first with the groom, then with the burgomaster and disappeared from view into a back room, with her girl companions. The groom drank off a large goblet of warm, sweet champagne, the temperature and quality of which I discovered when my own glass was filled. Round after round of wine was consumed and huge slabs of cake were passed about until in desperation and hidden by the crowd, in self defense I emptied my brimming goblet surreptitiously on the floor. I managed to ask the Consul, whisperingly, to explain. He said that the bridegroom was in South Africa and unable to be present, that the couple wished to be married at once, that he had sent for the bride to come to him, and as it was contrary to etiquette for the bride to go to him unmarried the bridegroom's brother acted as proxy, and that the young damsel, now a blushing bride, would sail by the steamer from Amsterdam for Natal the following morning. The usual custom of an all-night celebration was then observed. Dancing ensued to the music of a discordant band, and the constant eating and drinking among non-dancers went on. We all signed our names in a large book, and I was most hospitably urged to remain as a distinguished guest. My friend, the Consul, told me that this was not an unusual ceremony, but I had never heard of it before. There is an old saying in Holland that there are only two things a girl chooses herself—"her potatoes and her lover." They see each other at the "Kermis" and then the lad feels his heart's desire. So he puts on all his best clothes and bravely goes to her parents' house. The father and mother give him welcome, the girls smile and nudge each other, and no one refers to the purpose of his visit, though, of course, they well know why he has come. At last they all retire from the room, even the father and mother, and the two are left alone beside the fire. They speak of everything but the subject at heart. Not a word of love is uttered, but mark you, if she does not feed the fire on the

hearth and it goes down it is a hint that she does not care for him, but if she heaps piles of fuel on the fire he knows that she loves him and means to accept him for her husband, and he knows that it is all right, and from that day forward he is accepted as one of the family. The engagement is for a year or two, more or less, and they are permitted to go everywhere alone, and amuse themselves without criticism or interference on the part of the parents.





III. Rembrandt and His Pupils*

By George Breed Zug

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IN last month's article it was pointed out that throughout Rembrandt's long career there was a steady progress in technical mastery, in his ability to paint, and above all in his knowledge of humanity and in his depth of insight. This deepening of spiritual expression was illustrated by his corporation pictures and portraits, but it marks all his works in their entire range, and is especially noticeable in his pictures from sacred story. It is an acknowledged truth of criticism that hardly any master has produced the greatest art without possessing a broad knowledge of men, and also an acquaintance with personal suffering. It is important, therefore, to notice briefly some of the events in the life of our master, to observe how he was buffeted by fortune.

It has been seen that until his twenty-sixth year Rembrandt was really occupied with learning to paint. His pictures up to 1632 present excellent realistic workmanship similar to that of other Dutch painters. It was in the year 1632 that he painted the "Anatomy Lesson," which departed from the traditions of the school and established the reputation of the painter. From 1632 to 1642, the year of the "Night Watch," is the period of our master's outward prosperity, and includes also his eight years of happy married

*Articles of this series which have already appeared are: I. "Frans Hals and the Portrait," September; II. "Rembrandt," October.

life. The great German authority, Bode, estimates that during most of this period Rembrandt was earning somewhere between \$25,000 and \$30,000 every year. Moreover his wife, Saskia, had brought him a fortune of at least 20,000 florins. His financial prosperity was indicative of his professional success. After he was established at Amsterdam "he was crowded with commissions. Fellow-painters, diplomats, ladies of high degree, statesmen and clergymen were eager to be painted by the greatest master of the time. Some of them had to wait months for the privilege of sitting." In view of this it is surprising to learn that the years from 1642, when his wife died, to 1656 were years of gradually declining worldly fortune and worldly esteem that ended in social and financial ruin so that in 1656 he was declared bankrupt, and died in 1660 an undischarged bankrupt, possessing nothing which he could call his own besides his clothing and his artist's materials. The illness and death of the painter of "The Syndics" and of "The Anatomy Lesson" passed almost unnoticed, the bare fact of his burial being attested by an official entry. How is this extraordinary change to be explained? What led so successful and so great a man to social and financial ruin, almost to oblivion? To reply to this question let us go back in the story of his life.

In 1634 he married Saskia van Ulyenborch, a young woman of wealthier and better family than his own. Only their fourth child, Titus, lived to manhood, to the age of twenty-seven, dying one year before his father. Rembrandt's relations with Saskia were most happy. There are numerous portraits of her in chalk, etching and in paint. One of the latter shows her as a young wife seated upon the lap of her husband while he turns his smiling face to the spectator. There seems to have been perfect comradeship between husband and wife. During the years just before and just after her death Rembrandt painted a number of pictures which seem to show his love for the domestic life. One of the most touching of these is "The Carpenter's Household" in the Louvre in which in a quiet interior a mother sits nursing her child while the grandmother, Bible in hand, leans over to view the infant

face, while the father works at his bench by the window. Not long after the death of Saskia there was introduced into his household a young peasant girl, Hendrickje Stoffels. She seems to have performed all the offices of a faithful and devoted wife, yet there is no record that she was ever married to the painter. Hendrickje was reprimanded by her church and refused the sacrament of communion, because of her relations to Rembrandt. The result seems to have been social scandal and social ostracism. Rembrandt was indefatigable in his work; after a day of painting he spent the evening in drawing or etching. He withdrew into himself, shut himself up to his work, or studied the Jews of the lower classes and the beggars and let the world pass on its way. By his habits of life, his modest nature, his sympathy with people of low condition, his financial and social condition he seems to have estranged the friends of his prosperity.

It was also in 1642 that Rembrandt painted "The Night Watch," that most puzzling of pictures, for which Captain Banning Cocq and his company cared as little as the rest of the world. Instead of painting, as before, to please his clients he now painted to please himself, and with the result that his work became more and more original in conception and treatment. But it had too much imagination, too much romance of light and shade for the Dutch public, and from this time his popularity as an artist waned. Another cause for his financial condition was the fact that throughout the years of his happy union with Saskia he was continually lavishing upon her rich gifts, jewels and the richest garments. And not only did he heap treasures upon Saskia, but in order to form a motley collection of studio properties, "he was," to quote a contemporary, "constantly visiting the places of public auctions, and there procured him ancient and castoff costumes, which seemed to him quaint and picturesque, and all these things, though they were often full of dust, he would hang up on the walls of his studio side by side with all the fine and showy objects in which he took so much delight." These objects of value or of curiosity together with various specimens of steel or iron armour and a variety of fantastic head dresses must

have formed a curious collection and are worthy of mention because of his habit of dressing his sitters in surprising costumes, and because of the light they throw on his extravagance. For he is reported as offering at once so high a price for any desired object that no other bidder would come forward, and that he then excused his action by saying that he was glad to pay the extravagant price since it "exalted the honor of his art." For the proper installation of his collections and for his studio purposes Rembrandt purchased in January, 1639, the house in the Joden Breestraat, Amsterdam, which was to be his headquarters through the main part of his life and which was in 1906 at the celebration of the tercentenary of Rembrandt's birth fitted up as a Rembrandt Museum. The price of the house was to be 13,000 florins, to be paid in installments, and in view of the considerable sums he was receiving for his pictures, the occasional legacies which fell to him and the payments from his pupils it would seem as if he might have met the payments. But only a few were made and the accumulated interest and the debt made one of the causes of his embarrassment. Rembrandt seems to have been a man of honor, but he was impractical. He had the improvidence that so often accompanies the artistic temperament. Of all the steps to his financial ruin one can not be sure, but the general course is plain to see. A contemporary writer says that the master "was to be admired not less for his noble devotion to his art than for a kindness of heart verging on extravagance." One old writer says that he was no spendthrift; another that "when he was at work bread and cheese and a pickled herring were enough for his needs." In view of all this it seems as if Rembrandt's financial troubles came partly from circumstances beyond his control and partly from his artistic temperament.

Whether prosperous or bankrupt he seems to have been blessed with a marvelous fullness of the creative impulse. He rested from one form of creative activity by taking up another. Never content with his accomplishment; always possessed of unbounded curiosity he was a prodigious worker throughout his life. No one can say how much of his immense

output has been lost, but enough remains for the glory of a dozen less inspired creators. The work which has come down to us consists of nearly three hundred etchings, about fifteen hundred drawings and between five and six hundred paintings. In each of the mediums employed he produced not only portraits, but also classical, historical and allegorical studies and compositions of the nature of genre, of still-life, animals, landscapes and religious subjects. His etchings and drawings of landscape are among his most important creations. They show the canals and fields of Holland, the thatched cottages and tumble-down barns of his native land with a spontaneity lacking to his paintings of the same subjects. But it is as a painter of religious subjects that he stands alone. The Italian painters had proved themselves great interpreters of sacred themes. Their frescoes and the altarpieces were intended to "make beautiful the house of the Lord," and to teach the doctrines of the church to the unlettered. But all these and nearly all of the early Flemish and German religious pictures were the art of Roman Catholicism. The Madonna, the saints and the martyrs were represented perhaps more frequently than the Founder of Christianity himself. The spirit and the doctrines of Rome were constantly exhibited in line and form and color. There was only the beginning of a change in the works of Durer and Holbein. It remained for Rembrandt to prove himself the first great painter of Protestantism and the greatest of them all.

From the earliest days of his artistic activity Rembrandt was attracted to Biblical subjects. The most important of these early interpretations of the sacred writings is the painting in the Hague Museum, "Simeon in the Temple," executed in 1631, only three years later than the very first of the master's existing pictures. Under the spacious vaults of a Gothic cathedral Joseph and Mary, who have come to make their offering and present their new born child to the Lord, kneel on the pavement in the foreground, while in front of them to their right the high-priest in a glowing purple robe raises his hands in benediction, his back turned towards the spectators. The aged Simeon glancing up with a look of ecstasy and gratitude

holds in his arms the infant Christ. Now that he has beheld the salvation of the Lord he can depart in peace. Looking at this picture one is first impressed with the iridescent color of this central group,—the light blue of Mary's garment, the purple of the high priest, the gold over violet of Simeon. This jewel-like brilliancy is enhanced by the sombre garb of the beggars standing behind Mary and by the rich depths of shadow on either side and above. In many of Rembrandt's pictures it is impossible to explain the source of light, but here it is easily explained by supposing a window high up in the vaulted roof though outside the picture. Among Rembrandt's predecessors some had composed similar pictures with numerous figures in an interior of immense spaciousness, but the tenderness of the chief figure, the glory of color and the contrast of the eloquent gloomy space here reveal the individual genius of the master.

The Apochryphal story of Tobit inspired Rembrandt to its treatment in drawings, etchings and paintings. One of the most moving of these interpretations of this story is the painting in the Louvre of the year 1637, "The Angel Leaving Tobias." This illustrates, incidentally, the artist's tendency to paint pictures of limited dimensions with figures proportionate to the whole. The moment chosen by the master is that in which the angel, his mission accomplished, has revealed himself to the family at the threshold of their dwelling and takes his flight. Overcome with adoration the aged Tobit kneels with bowed head, his wife Anna drops her staff in astonishment and leans against her newly won daughter-in-law, who, her hands clasped in awe, follows the flight of the angel. The young husband, Tobias, too, expresses his wonder, though not so overcome as his elders. The painting is a masterpiece for its eloquent expression by pose and gesture of the emotions of reverence and amazement, for the rendering of the swift flight of the angel and for the dramatic use of light and shade. Most effective of all is the flashing radiance of the ascending figure, the beautiful adjustment of pale blue dress over the white tunic and the iridescent glory of the wings against the sombre clouds. In this picture as in

the "Christ at Emmaus" and in the "Good Samaritan" it is apparent how Rembrandt presents Bible characters with the aspect and garb of Dutchmen of his own time. Just as the Italians, Flemings and Germans translate the Bible stories in this same way into their own time and country so might Rembrandt be pardoned for doing. His interest is not in ecclesiastical details nor in esthetic theories, but in the emotional import and the dramatic reality of the event, and these he can best bring home to his fellowmen by the expressions and gestures of the very people whom he met on the streets of Amsterdam.

In the "Christ at Emmaus" the disciple at the left clasps his hands as he realizes the truth of the identity of Christ, the bearded man at the right stares in utter amazement, and the stolid servant seems perplexed because they do not eat. The central figure is, in one sense, only an Amsterdam Jew, but his pallid face, his sunken eyes, his blackened lips are those of one who has looked on death; they proclaim their risen Lord. Titian, Giorgione and a dozen other artists have painted Christs that are more beautiful, more godlike, but has any artist created so intimate an image of the suffering Savior? Just as the reverence and tenderness of the figures in the "Simeon in the Temple" are brought out by the expanse of gloomy temple, so here the poignancy of the dramatic moment is emphasized by the shadowed top of the picture. Rembrandt, like Velasquez in his "Maids of Honor," composed in tone as well as in light and shade. He utilized the air-filled space above as well as form and gesture to give meaning to his picture.

Another intensely human picture takes its theme from the parables of our Lord, from the story of "The Good Samaritan." Judging from the number of times Rembrandt treated this theme it seems indeed as though he was striving to translate the compassion, the infinite tenderness of God into terms of human kindness. Eugène Fromentin has written such an appreciative criticism of this work that no apology is needed for quoting him. "It is late; everything is in shadow, except one or two floating gleams which seem to change places



"Simeon in the Temple." By Rembrandt. In the Hague Museum.



"The Angel Leaving Tobias." By Rembrandt. In the Louvre, Paris.



"Christ at Emmaus." By Rembrandt. In the Louvre, Paris.



Night School. By Gerard Dou. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam

on the canvas so capriciously are they arranged, so mobile and light; nothing disturbs the tranquil uniformity of the twilight. In this pale, thin, and groaning countenance there is nothing which is not an expression, something from the soul, from within out—look around this picture—search the great gallery—consult the most powerful and most skillful painters—and ask yourself if you perceive anywhere such inwardness in the expression of a face, emotion of such nature, such simplicity in the way of feeling, anything, in a word, so delicate in conception and expression, or which has been said in terms either more original, more exquisite, or more perfect.”*

When looking at the best of the master's paintings one feels he was an artist whose genius was best expressed in paint; when studying his drawings one is sure he was born to use chalk and pencil; when enjoying his etchings the student is convinced that here indeed was the master etcher. Before Rembrandt many artists had practised engraving. Some few had begun to try the etching process. But it is the glory of Rembrandt that he developed etching to such an extent as to make it a new art, and he remains after three centuries the greatest of all etchers. “Christ Healing the Sick,” one of his most famous prints, is often called “The Hundred Guilder Print,” because it is believed that he received that amount for one copy,—an amount equal to forty or fifty dollars. A good example of this print was sold, however, in 1893, in London, for no less a sum than £1,750. The print is intended as an illustration of the nineteenth chapter of Matthew. On the left there is a wedge-shaped group of figures representing disciples, scribes, pharisees, and bystanders, some of whom press toward Christ. On the right a company of the maimed and halt and blind press toward the central figure for healing. Numerous as the figures are they are dominated by the majestic Christ who seems to be addressing a woman with a child in her arms, thus suggesting the words “Suffer little children to come unto me,” while the phrase “and forbid them not” is suggested by the figure of Peter, who pushes the woman back.

*“The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland.” E. Fromentin. Translated by Mary E. Robbins. Pages 284-287.

These figures together with those of the sufferers, and the benignancy of the Christ all emphasize again the Christian doctrine of compassion. The variety of the figures, the tender interpretation of human suffering together with a use of light and shade almost suggesting color and atmosphere make the work a triumph of Rembrandt's skill and insight.

While Rembrandt was still in Leyden he seems to have attracted pupils, for in 1628 when he was only twenty-two years of age he had three young men working in his studio. Of these three Gerard Dou, at that time a lad of but fifteen, was destined to the greatest success. For a while he was influenced by Rembrandt's peculiar treatment of light and shade, but he early developed a style marked by excessive care and painstaking elaboration of details. While Rembrandt worked more and more broadly, his pupil, who had previously been apprenticed to an engraver and glass painter, worked with increasing precision and elaboration. At first Dou devoted himself to portraits of very small size, but it is said that he wearied his sitters with his extreme care, requiring five days for the painting of a lady's hand, and three days for a broomstick "hardly bigger than your fingernail." "By this tediousness," writes Sandrart, a contemporary of Dou, "he spoiled all pleasure in sitting in such wise that a usually amiable face was distorted with vexation, melancholy, and displeasure." The result was that commissions for portraits were becoming fewer, and Dou was led to abandon that branch of art and devote himself to small subject pictures. A most successful example of his portrait art is seen in "A Negress." The turban with its aigrette, the skin with its shiny high lights, set off by the masses of white, the rich blue of the garment with its heavily jeweled clasp make a striking and harmonious ensemble. Another of his finest works and certainly the best of its class, is the "Portrait of Himself." In the original almost every hair can be seen, every line in the coat and the very threads of the curtain,—which last was enthusiastically praised by his contemporaries. Other artists had made portraits of people standing or sitting at a window. Dou took up the motive and painted many so-called "Niche-pieces."

In these he sometimes placed the grocer's wife, the dentist, the schoolmaster, or the goldsmith in a window, allowing the figure to rest its arms on the sill. Or through the opening of the window he permitted a view of a poulterer's shop, a kitchen or a nursery. Another theme associated with Dou and his followers was that of an aged hermit with long grey beard. Sometimes he is leaning out of the window, sometimes standing, but always with the same accessories—the crucifix, Bible, rosary, and skull.

Another class of subjects characteristic of Dou is the interior, often also seen through a window, with an effect of lamp or candle light. Such "Night Pieces" as they were called, probably had their origin with some earlier painters and in subjects of Bible history to which night effects seemed appropriate, as the "Birth of Christ" and "Peter in Prison," but the representation of night scenes of domestic and private life elaborately finished, and on a small scale was first adopted as a special phase of art by Gerard Dou. He was fond of painting young girls, old women, and old men gazing at a letter or a Bible by the light of a candle or a lantern. The famous "Night School" is one of the best and most elaborate of these night pieces. The schoolmaster behind the central flame is reproving the boy who seems to be leaving, while a little girl is bending over the table spelling out the words on a sheet of paper. At the left an older boy is writing on a slate by the light of a candle held by a young girl. To the right, in the background, a group of children is gathered about another table, their faces lighted by a tiny flame.

In many of Dou's pictures he introduces too many accessories and paints them with such infinite care and smooth finish that the eye wanders here and there in search of a main point of interest. There is in these pictures too much elaboration, too much display of skill for skill's sake. Such pictures bear marks of infinite patience, not of greatest art. In Dou's time minute finish was beginning to be in high favor. Rembrandt and Hals, whose broad manner of painting produces vastly greater art, died in poverty, while connoisseurs clamored for the pictures of Dou and his followers for more

than a century. The prices of his works steadily rose; "An Old Woman by Candle Light" by Dou sold in 1777 for thirty gulden and brought in 1899 six thousand four hundred and forty-three gulden. Even during the life time of Rembrandt one of his large and important pictures would bring about one third the price of a tiny painting by his pupil. It was the triumph of the obvious. Dou was without imagination, apparently without emotion; nature, living or dead, seemed to him merely studio property. His precise drawing and enamel-like finish make his pictures seem lifeless, for the careful finish of hairs and buttons and broom handle represent only the "etymology of art." Dou triumphed for only a time. Rembrandt remains supreme.

In the days of his success and fame Rembrandt had quarters in his house in the Breestraat where from time to time a score or more of pupils were accommodated. They were assigned to cabinets partitioned off from one another by canvas screens, and there they worked from the model or from still life. Nicholaes Maes and Carel Fabritius were two of these pupils who were influenced by the master's methods of color and lighting for a period and until they developed an individual style of their own, as Gerard had done before them. But most of these pupils, such as Govert Flinck, Ferdinand Bol and Jan Victors, were mere followers who did poorly what the master did supremely well. A comparison of the work of these pupils with that of the master in drawing, color, lighting, and interpretation will only bring out this greatness. There have been stories of Rembrandt's aloofness and selfishness; it was claimed that he kept to himself while working so as to preserve the secret of his art. Later writers, however, shown that he was most generous and kindly to his followers, helping them in all possible ways and that the only secret was his consummate art and unrivaled genius.

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BIBLIOGRAPHY ON REMBRANDT AS ETCHER.

Excellent chapters on Rembrandt's etchings are in E. Michel's "Rembrandt," and G. Baldwin Brown's "Rembrandt" (see bibliography on Rembrandt in last month's CHAUTAUQUAN.)

See also:

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SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS ON C. L. S. C. REQUIRED READINGS WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

(End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading for December, Pages 336-396.)

Rembrandt Restoration and Color Photograph

Everybody who goes to Holland looks for at least two of Rembrandt's famous paintings, The Anatomy Lesson and The Night Watch. The Night Watch has now been given a room to itself in the Ryks Museum, at Amsterdam. The Anatomy Lesson, or The School of Anatomy, as the guide books and catalogs give the title,

is in the picture gallery, housed in what is called the Mauritshuis, at The Hague. The rooms of the Mauritshuis are overcrowded, but eleven of the sixteen works by Rembrandt contained in this collection are among the best specimens of his early manner. The Presentation in the Temple, usually called Simeon in the Temple, is here.

When we looked for The School of Anatomy last spring a big, empty frame hung where the picture ought to be seen. Inquiry developed the fact that this canvas had been taken out for restoration and was at the moment locked up and being photographed. On the strength of special interest in connection with our CHAUTAUQUAN studies and reproductions of Dutch art, permission was gained to enter the closed room, and this is the story of restoration told to us:

The canvas carrying this priceless painting had become so worn out and cracked that a German had undertaken to change the canvas without destroying the picture. He had prepared a kind of matrix on a perfectly level surface and stuck the face of the painting to it. Then he had actually rubbed off the canvas by degrees from the back of the pigment. This wearing away of the canvas by friction, as one might use an eraser, was said to have been accomplished by means of various materials and by finger touches in the final stages. Having, with infinite patience and skill, rubbed off the canvas down to the back of the pigment, a new canvas was attached to carry the painting itself again. Thereupon the matrix was removed from the face of the painting, which, cleaned and varnished, stood on the easel before our eyes as bright and apparently as perfect as if it had been painted recently instead of 276 years ago, thus preserved for centuries more to come.

In the search for photographs, chiefly to illustrate THE CHAUTAUQUAN's Reading Journey in the Hollow Land, we found one photographer in Amsterdam who could not contain his enthusiasm over the first successful color photograph of The Night Watch. This photograph had been taken by an American, for the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, and brought to the Dutchman's establishment for developing. According to this authority, more photographs had been taken of this particular painting than any other in Holland. As new photographic processes had been invented, unsuccessful attempts had been made to secure a photograph which would reproduce the colors of the painting itself. The plate used this time was made in France, and similar plates have been successfully used in photographing the natural colors of flowers, landscapes, etc., in the United States. The photograph taken of The Night Watch is a positive, and not a negative, from which prints can be made. The result is a transparency through which one looks to the light and sees the colors of the original painting reproduced.

—EDITOR OF THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

The German Social Policy.

By Charles Richmond Henderson

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FOR more than two centuries the princes of the various German states, moved by the consciousness of their responsibilities as rulers and by their dynastic interests, have sought to gather information about the needs of their people and to form policies in accordance with the discovered facts. They have not all been equally intelligent and humane, and some have been selfish and oppressive; some have been passionate and foolish; but out of their best traditions has grown a system of social care which challenges the admiration of the world. The finest ideals of the rulers are expressed in the closing part of Goethe's "Faust," where the dying master of lands and folk looks with satisfaction out upon fields redeemed for human habitation and upon an industrious and prosperous people tilling the soil which he has fortified against the encroaching sea. No other nation can show any such unified and scientific organization, least of all our own beloved country, which is still struggling with its atomistic and self-centered notions born of primitive conditions of frontier life where man was separated from man, and where institutions have not had time to develop. With us thought is chaotic and we have not come to accept the principle of national solidarity and obligation for the welfare of all citizens; we do not even aim at that end in any clear, straightforward fashion. Hence we need to learn all we can from Germany, though it would be foolish to copy an institution just as it exists there.

I. Perhaps we may well begin with the idea of national integrity and the consciousness of a mission to mankind. Early in the nineteenth century Fichte encouraged scholars, statesmen and common people, at the moment when they lay prostrate under the stroke of Napoleon's conquering hosts, with a philosophical discourse on national duty. He pictured the races of earth stretching out pleading hands to Germany

and begging it to fulfill its destiny, to cultivate science and philosophy, and to perform noble deeds, so that it might lead mankind out of darkness and despotism. The idealism was superb and found response. The Watch on the Rhine sounded through the ranks of youth, and a new spirit, German and Christian, filled the souls of men. Doubtless there was something of egotism, of pride, of selfishness and of aggressiveness in this purpose; but we ought to acknowledge that a nation cannot be powerful, effective and useful to the world unless it believes in itself, unless it asserts itself and feels that it has reason to live on this planet, and that its conduct has important consequences for humanity. Perhaps the first response to Fichte's appeal came from those classes which had inherited the culture of the earlier periods of history, but gradually they penetrated the groups of wage earners, descendants of freed serfs. Popular poets sang the praises of Fatherland, so that art lent charm and measure to the rising national spirit. It is not too much to say that the most abstract ideal of philosophy deepened the sense of national unity, that religion, in Luther's land, was ever a deep force even with skeptics and free thinkers, and that science was made tributary to the practical program for making the nation's life rich, healthy, and strong.

II. The leaders of the German people have realized with growing clearness that their nation could not fulfil its great destiny without economizing and augmenting the resources of the country, its soil, its mines, and its men. Jahn is a name connected with the movement for improving the physical efficiency of the people; Stein helped organize government; Hegel, Fichte, Schelling worked out a unified thought of life and its relations; eminent chemists, physicists, and biologists made German universities the centers of scientific progress and drew students from all lands; and all knowledge was made to serve practice through gifted inventors and organizers. Leaders of the nation went to work systematically, with cool blood and collected thought, to look over the whole field, to make inventories of their forces, their needs and their perils, and then calculated the cost of measures adapted to the national efficiency on every side. When the right

measure was found they did not wait for "evolution," but they put forth acts of will and courage to carry that measure into effect, despite poverty, controversy, war, and all other obstacles.

Let us barely glance at some of the most conspicuous of these acts of a united nation under scientific guidance. In America we are just learning the vital need for expert direction; we still sneer at "theorists"; yet Germany, leader of the world's thoughts, is leader because she has honored and rewarded her theorists, the prophets of thought.

First of all must be counted the consolidation of the twenty-six states of Germany into one Empire, as a part consequence of the Franco-Prussian war, an event for which long preparation had been made and which was consummated at the supreme moment of triumph over France. This consolidation of states made other movements possible. The organization of an army and a navy of the first order was necessary to establish and then to protect the Empire. Russia, Italy, Austria, France, Great Britain were not always to be regarded as pleased with the rise and growth of this formidable power, and safety lay in surrounding the beehive of industry with a cordon of ships, forts and soldiery to defend the stores of accumulated wealth. A rapidly growing population compelled statesmen to think of colonial expansion, regions for the foreign activities and industries of the nation. At least so they thought, and on that idea they have already invested millions and that without economic returns. Perhaps they are wrong, but certainly they are courageous. So the country is a vast camp and every young man who is physically capable must for a time receive the training of a soldier.

But the Empire asks service only for the sake of the people. The united nation can by uniform laws, valid in every state, secure equal legal rights for all citizens. Very early in the history of the Empire a criminal code was enacted, with a uniform requirement, uniform penalties, uniform procedure everywhere the imperial authority extends. Uniform civil laws regulate industry and commerce, so that each manufacturer and merchant has the same rights in all states, so far as general legislation is concerned; the separate states having

considerable control over local matters, as in the United States. Furthermore the conflicting and restricted poor laws were consolidated into one general law, so that a dependent citizen anywhere in the Empire knows what he can claim in times of extreme need. The cities have a somewhat uniform system of poor relief based on the methods adopted about the middle of the last century in the city of Elberfeld, and therefore often called the "Elberfeld System." Its principles are essentially those of the English and American Charity Organization Society. The imperial Supreme Court, at Leipsic, secures uniform interpretation of national laws.

III. The Social Policy of the German Empire means that system of regulations and positive legislation which has for its direct object improvement in the physical, economic, and cultural conditions of the masses of the people whose incomes are small and who are likely to be oppressed by employers and to suffer from insufficient and uncertain income. In a larger sense this term "social policy" may be taken to include all the agencies of the German nation acting to the same end through voluntary associations or the deeds of employers, churches, towns and corporations.

It is well known that the great majority of families of wage earners depend upon constant employment for their daily bread, and that few of them save for times of unemployment. Starvation is always within gunshot when labor ceases for any reason. Now the absolute right to be employed by society for wages has never yet been recognized by any modern state. At the same time employers feel it to be their duty to keep their employees busy as long as it is possible considering the condition of the market; they cannot carry on business at a loss. It is dangerous to have large bodies of hungry men idle for a long time and it is demoralizing; therefore German cities have endeavored to furnish information at lowest cost in respect to opportunities for earning wages, since workmen do not always know where labor is needed and employers do not know where workers may be found. The German government has secured a thorough report on the causes and extent of unemployment in various countries

and the best methods of mitigating its evils, as by emergency works of a public character and by the creation of insurance funds in times of active industry to pay out to those who are deprived of occupation at certain seasons of the year.

Theoretically and legally in modern countries each workman is free to make any sort of a contract he pleases with the employer; but, as a matter of fact, the employer has a great advantage in this situation since he can wait while the workman must have occupation as a condition of living, and the employer also has more experience in bargaining, more knowledge of the conditions of the market. Therefore the German law interferes where it is thought that the workman may be compelled to make a "free" contract under duress, under the compulsion of hunger. Starvation is like an invisible but very real lash in the hand of a taskmaster, and the government cannot permit the weaker man to go to earth without help.

German law does not attempt directly to prescribe the rate of wages or to establish a minimum below which an employer shall not employ a workman; but the rate of wages may be raised to some extent by collective bargaining, that is by the agreement of a large number of persons in a trade union not to work unless a certain minimum amount is offered by the employer. It does little good for a single workman to refuse to work; it is only when all or most of the employees act in concert that their demands are heeded seriously. Therefore the German law secures but regulates the right of wage earners to combine and strike. The law also seeks to make the employers pay promptly and at frequent intervals, and to prevent the payment of wages in "truck" which is below the value of the money wages promised.

Among the most interesting and useful institutions of Germany are trade tribunals which settle many disputes between employers and employees at the lowest possible cost and without tedious and expensive delays. It is true these courts do not decide the rate of wages nor fix future contracts, but they dispose of many mischievous causes of strife and quarrels in a very sensible way. In America we very much need similar agencies, for our courts are proverbially slow and

when the lawyers have been paid nothing is left for the workman, even if he has won his suit. Germany has found a better way.

Mr. I. N. Rubinow has already published in this magazine (1905) an admirable description of one of the most important factors in the German social policy, the industrial insurance laws and system of administration. It will not be repeated here; but we should carefully note the relation of this wonderful and successful piece of legislation to all other parts of the public system to which it belongs. In general terms the employers are required by law to provide a fund out of which an injured workman is legally entitled to be paid a sum sufficient to care for him in a hospital or at home during his disability, as well as for his family support; and if he dies in consequence of an accident his widow receives a modest pension until she dies or remarries and the children until they are old enough to leave school and support themselves. The sickness insurance funds which care for men for the first thirteen weeks of disability caused by illness or accident are supported by contributions from both employers and employees, the latter paying two thirds of the premiums. These insurance funds, though compulsory, are not managed by the government but by the parties concerned; the government control being carried only so far as to secure an honest and correct management.

Supplementary to the sickness and accident insurance is the pension scheme for invalids and aged persons of the low paid classes of society. Employers pay into the government fund at the same rate as the workers, and when a pension begins the national government grants an additional sum. This is just, because the nation requires every workman to yield several years of his life even in times of peace to military service, and in time of war may ask him to lay down life itself. A pension secured for old age is but small reward for such service to the country. In the United States we pay pensions to wounded soldiers; but in Germany every able bodied man is a soldier.

This system of insurance is closely related to the national policy for improving the efficiency of the people. Thus the employers, having to pay the premiums for insurance are vitally interested in devices for preventing accidents and consequent injuries and in measures for preventing disease, since disability from any cause weakens the working force, lessens the amount of production and increases the cost of insurance. For the same reason the workmen are influenced to use care in respect to accidents and sickness. The government insurance office has actually become a strong advocate of temperance and sexual morality, a preacher of virtue and prudence, because the statistics collected by the imperial bureaus show the unmistakable relation between diminished cost of insurance and good habits. Furthermore the funds accumulated especially by the invalid pension departments are ready for investments in sanatoria, hospitals and wholesome dwellings, and thus serve a double purpose. Tuberculosis has diminished more rapidly in Germany than in any other country because the medical profession has had the use of immense funds in their war upon the causes of disease. When a workman must appeal to charity he is slow to ask for medical aid; frequently he will conceal his illness from his family and even try to conceal it from himself until it is too late, simply because he will not go to a charity hospital or dispensary. In Germany a workman knows that he has a legal right, without charity, to medical advice and help, and he reports promptly when anything is wrong with his body, and so his chances of cure are greater, his time lost from work is less, and he is in much less danger of infecting others if his disease is contagious in character.

Germany like all other countries has suffered from congestion of population in cities, from crowded and unfit dwellings. Many years ago the government made extensive investigations of the facts, took advice from eminent men of science and set about improving the situation. Laws and ordinances were enacted compelling landlords to provide rooms having suitable light, ventilation and freedom from dampness; crowding was forbidden; the entire matter was

brought under the control of the police. At the same time, from motives of humanity and enlightened self-interest, employers, benevolent associations and building societies undertook to build and maintain separate or combined dwellings for the working people. The cities have also sought to provide modern methods of sewerage and drainage, to isolate cases of contagious disease and disinfect premises after such cases have appeared. As a result of all these measures the progress of public health, as evidenced by decreased mortality, has been greater in cities than in the country, in spite of unfavorable conditions.

The improvement in dwellings is indicated by the fact that in 1875, out of 1,000 dwellings 195.5 had only one heatable room and 20.7 had two heatable rooms; in 1895 these figures had fallen to 132.2 and 10.9. In Frankfort the improvement was even more marked.

IV. What have been the results of this mighty system of care for the working people of Germany? Unquestionably the first evidence of success appears in the diminished sickness and death roll of the nation. Every day that can be added to the life of a child or adult of productive years is a national gain. Length of life and vigor of body are parts of the national wealth and the basis of all happiness in family life.

The decennial average death rate before the insurance laws went into effect (1871-1880) was 28.8 per thousand; in the decade 1891-1900, the rate was only 23.5; the fall being due not to one factor alone but to the entire social policy and the increase of intelligence in the nation. The death rate in Berlin in 1831-1840 was 31.69; in 1902 it had fallen to 17.11. The death rate fell from 40.4 to 21.4 in the city of Munich between the years 1875 and 1902. Professor Ashley shows that the number of suicides in cities, an indication of the courage and hope of the people, has fallen from 31 to 24.5 per 100,000 inhabitants since 1881.

Another outcome of this social policy is the greater productive energy of the laborers and an increase in the population itself, while the population of France remains stationary. When men lose less time from illness, are more promptly

restored from disability, have better food and clothing and dwellings, when they are more hopeful and courageous, they cause the machinery of capitalists to produce more commodities and of a better quality. Within a few years Germany has moved forward from the rear to the advance line of modern industrial countries and her wares of fine quality and low price are found in all the markets of the world, her merchant ships are seen on every sea and in all the ports.

And since capital has been more prosperous and its product greater the share which could fall to labor has increased and so wages have risen everywhere. It was said by enemies of the insurance system mentioned above that the employers would reduce wages by so much as the premiums cost; and even if this had been true the condition of the workmen would have been improved; but it is not true. Wages have increased and the employers have added millions of money in the form of insurance premiums to help the sick, injured and aged in times of distress and weakness. In the year 1891, 63.7 per cent of wage earners enrolled in the pension scheme belonged to the classes having very low wages; while in 1902 only 45.9 per cent remained in these classes; the majority having risen in the scale.

While the methods of poor relief have been made more liberal, adequate and humane fewer persons have been found to depend on charity; a spirit of personal independence has grown. The number of persons in receipt of poor relief has diminished in Hamburg in spite of the rapid increase in population, and this is true of Crefeld, Mannheim and Erfurt. The relative number of orphans supported by charity has also diminished.

It may be noted that at all points improvement is manifest; the deposits in savings banks have steadily increased, although the let alone people always predict that insurance will destroy the habit of saving. The co-operative movement has prospered, and that is another form of organized and voluntary thrift; the number of members in 1864 was only 7,700, and in 1900 it had risen to 522,000. The consumption of good food has increased, cereals, sugar, rice, fruit, meat.

On the other hand the consumption of strong spirits seems to have diminished.

All these years the working people have become more intelligent, have sent their children longer to school, have often joined the ranks of professional men, have become a political power, have gained experience in administration in their insurance associations, in the army and in the industrial courts. Their political party, the Social Democracy, is the largest party in the empire and holds the balance of power; it cannot be ignored. And the very fact that the working people can now secure their rights by lawful and constitutional means diminishes resort to violence. Why should they risk life and spill blood when they have only to make speeches enough and the Reichstag will give them what is just? It is a good deal more comfortable to make eloquent speeches than to have one's head broken in a mob, and that without any real gain. Employers are more ready than formerly to treat with their employees through trade unions and to form trade agreements in order to avoid strikes and interruptions of industry.

We in America have not duly considered the meaning of one fact which is familiar to all who have given even superficial attention to the statistics of immigration. It is well known that since about 1890 the character of immigration has totally changed; that we no longer gain much from the countries of Northern Europe, and especially from Germany, whence multitudes of our best earlier immigrants came. Have we ever thought that one important cause of this change has been the new social policy of Germany and other countries of the same class? We wonder why young men are willing to submit to military service when they might come to America and escape. It is not strange; Germany offers more security of existence in times of illness, accident, invalidism and old age than any other country; and her sons will not willingly leave these advantages for the uncertainty of America. Only those who fly from oppression, poverty and hard vicissitudes are willing to expatriate themselves. In the year 1884 the emigration over sea from Germany drained away 3.22 per

cent of the vigorous people of Germany, while the rate in 1903 was only 0.62 per cent.

REFERENCES.

The student of this subject will find very readable accounts of the recent developments of the German social policy in the following books in English:

W. J. Ashley. "The Progress of the German Working Classes in the last Quarter of a Century." 1904. Professor Ashley gives the titles to many German sources.

W. H. Dawson. "The German Workman, a Study in National Efficiency." 1906.

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There are numerous magazine articles in all languages.



Famous European Short Stories*

The Elixir of Pere Gaucher

By Alphonse Daudet

“DRINK this, neighbor, and tell me what you think of it.” And drop by drop, with the scrupulous care of a lapidary counting pearls, the curé of Graveson poured out two fingers of a green, golden, warm, sparkling, exquisite liqueur. It brought a flood of sunshine into my stomach.

“It is Père Gaucher’s elixir, the joy and the health of our Provence,” said the good man, with a triumphant air; “it is made at the convent of Prémontrés, a couple of leagues from your mill. Is it not worth all the Chartreuse in the world? And if you knew just how amusing the story of this elixir is! Just listen!”

Then, quite simply, and without seeing the joke of it, the abbé began in the dining-room of the *presbytere*, so quiet and calm, with its Way of the Cross in little pictures, and its pretty white curtains starched like surplices, a somewhat skeptical and irreverent story, of the fashion of a tale by Erasmus or D’Assoucy.

Twenty years ago the Prémontrés—or rather the White Fathers, as our Provençaux call them—had become wretchedly poor. If you had seen their house in those days, you would have pitied them.

The great wall and the Pacôme Tower were crumbling away. All about the grass-grown cloister the colonnades were falling, and the stone saints toppling over in their niches. There was not a whole window, or a door which would shut. The Rhone wind blew in the closes and in the chapels, extinguishing the candles, breaking the lead of the casements and spilling the holy water from the basins. But saddest of all

*From “Letters from My Mill,” by Alphonse Daudet. Copyright, 1893, by Dodd, Mead and Co. Reprinted through the courtesy of the publishers.

was the convent belfry, as silent as an empty dove-cote; and the fathers, for lack of money to buy a bell, were obliged to ring matins on rattles made of almond wood!

Poor White Fathers! I can still see them at the Corpus Christi procession marching sadly in their patched gowns, pale, thin, fed on a diet of lemons and watermelons; and behind them the abbot, who walked with hanging head, ashamed to show his ungilded crosier and his moth-eaten mitre of white cloth. The ladies of the sisterhood wept with pity in the ranks, and the fat banner bearer sneered in their midst under his breath as he pointed at the poor monks:

"Starlings go thin when they go in flocks."

The fact is that the unfortunate White Fathers had themselves reached the point of questioning whether it would not be better for them to take their flight into the world, each to seek his food in his own direction.

Well, one day when they were debating this grave question in the chapter, word was brought to the prior that Frère Gaucher asked to be heard by the council. You must know, for your better comprehension, that this Frère Gaucher was herdsman of the convent; that is to say, he spent his days wandering from arcade to arcade in the cloister, driving before him two lean cows which sought for grass in the cracks of the pavement. The poor herdsman, who had been cared for till the age of twelve by a crazy old woman of Baux called Aunt Bégon, and who since then had been taken in by the monks, had never been able to learn anything but to drive his cattle and to say his Pater Noster; and even that he said in Provençal, for his brain was impenetrable, and his wit like a leaden dagger. For the rest he was a fervent Christian, though somewhat visionary, comfortable in his hair shirt, flagellating himself with hearty sincerity, and with such arms!

When they saw him enter the chapter-house, simple and awkward, bowing to the company with a scrape of the foot, the prior, the canons and treasurer all began to laugh. It was the effect he always produced whenever he went anywhere, by his good face with its grayish goat-like beard and

his somewhat wild eyes, and therefore Frère Gaucher was not disturbed by it.

"Reverend Fathers," said he good-humouredly, twisting his olive-wood rosary, "they are right when they say that empty hogsheads sing the loudest. By digging in my poor head, which is already so hollow, I think that I have discovered the means of getting us out of our difficulties.

"This is how. You remember Aunt Bégon, that good woman who took care of me when I was little? (May God keep her soul, the old sinner! she sang terrible songs when she had been drinking!) I must tell you then, Reverend Fathers, that Aunt Bégon knew as much about the herbs of our mountains as—yes, more than an old Corsican blackbird. Among other things she had composed toward the end of her life an incomparable elixir by mixing five or six kinds of simples which we used to go together and gather on the Alpilles. That is many years ago, but I think that with the help of Saint Augustine and the permission of our father, the abbot, I might, if I tried hard, recover the composition of this mysterious elixir. Then we would have nothing to do but to put it into bottles and to sell it somewhat dear, which would allow the community to grow rich quietly, like our brothers of La Trappe and the Grande—"

He had not time to finish. The prior had risen and fallen upon his neck. The canons clasped his hands. The treasurer, more deeply moved than any of the others, kissed with respect the tattered border of his robe. Then each one returned to his stall to deliberate, and on the spot the chapter decided that they would intrust the cows to Frère Thrasybule, in order that Frère Gaucher might give himself up wholly to the confection of his elixir.

How did the good brother succeed in recovering Aunt Bégon's receipt? At the cost of what efforts, what vigils? History does not say. Only, what is certain is that at the end of six months the elixir of the White Fathers was already very popular. In the whole county, in the whole neighborhood of Arles, there was not a *mas* nor a grange, which had not, in the depths of its cupboard, between the bottles of

mulled wine and the jars of picholine olives, a little brown earthenware flagon, sealed with the arms of Provence, with a monk in ecstasy on a silver label. Thanks to the popularity of its elixir the house of the Prémontrés grew rich very rapidly. They rebuilt the Pacôme Tower. The prior had a new mitre, the church pretty stained-glass windows; and within the fine lace of the belfry, a whole covey of bells, big and little, alighted one fine Easter morning pealing merrily.

As for Frère Gaucher, that poor lay brother whose clownishness had so amused the chapter, he was no more heard of in the convent. Henceforth they knew only the Reverend Père Gaucher, the man of intellect and of great learning, who lived completely isolated from the many and trifling occupations of the cloister, and shut himself up all day in his distillery, while thirty monks scoured the mountain in search of fragrant herbs for him. This distillery, into which no one, not even the prior, had the right to enter, was an old, abandoned chapel, at the very end of the canon's garden. The simplicity of the good fathers had made it something mysterious and terrible; and if by chance a bold and curious young monk, clinging to the climbing vines, reached the rose-window over the door he would slip down hastily, frightened by the sight of Père Gaucher, with his wizard's beard, leaning over his furnaces, hydrometer in hand, and surrounded by retorts of rose-colored sandstone, gigantic alembics, crystal worms, and a whole weird apparatus which shone as if bewitched in the red light of the windows.

At nightfall, when the last angelus rang, the door of this abode of mystery would be opened cautiously, and the reverend father would betake himself to the church for the evening service. What a reception they gave him whenever he walked through the monastery! The brothers would form a lane for him as he passed and whisper:

"Hush, he has the secret."

The treasurer would follow him and speak to him in an undertone. Amidst all this adulation the father would walk on, mopping his brow, with his broad three-cornered hat on

the back of his head like an aureole, looking about him complacently at the large courts planted with orange trees, the blue roofs on which turned new weather-cocks, and, in the dazzlingly white cloister, between the elegant, florid columns, the canons clad in new robes, filing two and two with tranquil mien.

"It is to me that they owe it all!" the reverend father would tell himself; and each time this thought would bring a rush of pride.

The poor man was well punished for it. You will see how.

Just fancy that one evening, during service, he arrived at the church in a state of extraordinary excitement,—red, out of breath, with his cowl awry, and so agitated that in taking holy-water he wet his sleeve to the elbow. They thought at first that it was embarrassment at arriving late; but when they saw him make low obeisances to the organ and the pulpit instead of to the high altar, cross the church like a whirlwind, and wander about the choir for five minutes in search of his stall, and then, when seated, bow right and left with a maudlin smile, a murmur of astonishment ran through the three naves. They whispered from breviary to breviary,—

"What is the matter with our Père Gaucher? What is the matter with our Père Gaucher?"

Twice did the prior impatiently beat upon the pavement with his crosier to command a silence. Above, in the choir, the Psalms still went on, but the responses lacked enthusiasm.

Suddenly, in the very midst of the *Ave Verum*, our Père Gaucher suddenly sits back in his stall, and sings in a mighty voice,—

*Dans Paris il y a un Pere blanc,
Patatin, patatan, tarabin, taraban.*

There is general consternation. Every one rises. They cry,—

"Take him out! He is possessed!"

The canons cross themselves. The abbot's crosier keeps up a terrible clatter. But Père Gaucher neither sees nor hears anything; and two lusty monks are obliged to drag him out by the small choir door, struggling like one exorcised, and continuing his patatins and his tarabans louder than ever.

The next morning at daybreak the unhappy father was on his knees in the prior's oratory, saying his *mea culpa* with a torrent of tears.

"It is the elixir, Reverend Father, it is the elixir which took me by surprise," said he, beating his breast; and seeing him so wretched and repentant, the good prior was quite moved himself.

"Come, come, Père Gaucher, calm yourself; this will all dry up like dew in the sunshine. After all, the scandal was not so serious as you think. It is true that the song was rather—hum! hum! Well we must hope that the novices did not hear it. And now tell me how it happened. It was in trying the elixir, was it not? Your hand was a little too heavy. Yes, yes, I understand. You are like brother Schwartz, who invented gunpowder,—the victim of your own invention. Tell me, my good friend, is it absolutely necessary for you to try this terrible elixir upon yourself?"

"Unfortunately, yes, Monseigneur, the test gives me the strength and degree of the alcohol; but for the finish, the velvet, I can trust only to my tongue."

"Ah, very well. But one thing more, when you taste the elixir in this way, by necessity, does it seem to you good? Do you enjoy it?"

"Alas! yes," said the unfortunate father, growing very red. "For the last two evenings it has seemed to have such a flavor, such an aroma! It is certainly the devil who has played me this trick; and therefore I am firmly resolved henceforth to use only the test. So much the worse if the liqueur is not fine enough, if it does not pearl—"

"Oh, Heaven forbid!" interrupted the prior hastily. "We must not risk displeasing our customers. All that you have to do, now that you are warned, is to be on your guard. Come,

how much do you need to make sure. Fifteen, or twenty drops, eh! Let us say twenty drops. Besides, in order to prevent accidents, I will excuse you from coming to chapel hereafter. You can read the evening service in the distillery. And now, go in peace, Reverend Father, and above all count your drops."

Alas! it was in vain that the poor father counted his drops; the devil had hold of him and never let go.

They were singular services that the distillery witnessed!

During the day all went well. The father was calm enough; he prepared his retorts and alembics, carefully selected his herbs,—all the herbs of Provence, fine, gray, serrated, saturated with perfume and sunshine. But in the evenings, when the simples were infused, and the elixir was cooling in great pans of red copper, then the poor man's martyrdom would begin.

"Seventeen—eighteen—nineteen—twenty!"

The drops would fall from the graduator into the silver goblet. The father would swallow these twenty at a gulp, almost without pleasure. It was only for the twenty-first that he longed. Oh, that one-and-twentieth drop! Then, to escape from the temptation, he would go and kneel at the other end of the laboratory and plunge into his prayers. But from the still warm liqueur there would rise a little mist laden with aromatic odours which came and played about him, and in spite of himself drew him back to the pans. The liqueur was of a fine golden green. Bending over it, with open nostrils, the father would stir it gently, and in the little flashes which shone against the emerald background he seemed to see Aunt Bégon's eyes, laughing and sparkling as they looked at him.

"Come, one drop more!"

And, from drop to drop, the unfortunate man would end by having his goblet filled to the brim. Then, at the end of his strength, he would sink into a large easy-chair and with half-closed eyes lazily sip his sin, murmuring to himself with delicious remorse.—

"Ah! I am damning myself, I am damning myself!"

The most terrible part of it was that in the depths of this diabolical elixir he would find, by some strange witchcraft, all Aunt Bégon's dreadful songs: *Ce sont trois petites commeres qui parlent de faire un banquet*: or *Bergerette de Maître Andre s'en va-t-au bois seulette*; and invariably the famous one about the White Fathers,—Patatin, patatan.

Fancy his embarrassment the next morning when those who occupied the neighboring cells would say to him,—

"Ah, ha! Père Gaucher, so you had cicadae in your head last night when you went to sleep!"

Then there would be tears, despair, fasting, the hair shirt, and the scourge. But nothing could prevail against the demon of the elixir; and every evening, at the same hour, the poor father would be again possessed.

During this time orders were fairly showered upon the abbey like a benediction. They came from Nîmes, from Aix, from Avignon, from Marseilles. Day by day the convent took on more the air of a manufactory. There were packing brothers and labelling brothers, brothers for writing and brothers for carting. The service of God may have lost the tolling of a bell here and there; but the poor of the neighborhood lost nothing by it, I warrant you.

Well, one fine Sunday morning, while the treasurer was reading to the assembled chapter his inventory for the close of the year, and the good canons were listening with glittering eyes and smiling lips, Père Gaucher suddenly rushed into the midst of the conference crying.—

"That ends it! I will make no more. Give me back my cows—"

"What is the matter, Père Gaucher?" asked the prior, who suspected what was in the wind.

"What is the matter, Reverend Father? The matter is that I am preparing for myself a nice eternity of flames and pitchforks. The matter is that I am drinking,—that I am drinking like a fish."

"But I told you to count your drops."

"Ah, yes, count my drops! It is by goblets that I should have to count now. Yes, Reverend Father, I have reached that point; three flasks an evening. You can understand that this cannot go on. Therefore let you who like make your elixir. May the fire of God burn me if I will have anything more to do with it."

As you can fancy, the chapter was not smiling now.

"But you will ruin us, wretched man!" cried the treasurer, brandishing his ledger.

"Do you prefer to see me damned?"

Then the prior rose.

"Reverend Fathers," said he, stretching forth his white hand on which glistened the pastoral ring, "there is a way of arranging everything. It is in the evening, is it not, my dear son, that the demon tempts you?"

"Yes, regularly every evening. Consequently, now when I see evening approach, I sweat, saving your presence, from hand to foot, like Capitou's ass when he saw the saddle coming."

"Well, take heart! Every evening hereafter, at service, we will recite for you the orison of Saint Augustine, to which plenary indulgence is attached. With that, no matter what happens, you are safe. It is absolution during the sin."

"Oh! very well then; thank you, Reverend Father."

And without asking for anything more, Père Gaucher went back to his alembics as light as a swallow.

And in fact, from that time on, every evening after complines the officiating priest never failed to say,—

"Let us pray for poor Père Gaucher, who is sacrificing his soul to the interests of the community. *Oremus Domine.*"

And while over all these white cowls, prostrate in the shadow of the nave, the orison rang quivering like a little breeze over snow, at the other end of the convent, behind the flaming windows of the distillery, Père Gaucher could be heard, singing at the top of his voice,—

*Dans Paris il y a un Pere Blanc,
Patatin, patatan, taraban, tarabin;
Dans Paris il y a un Pere Blanc
Qui fait danser des moinettes,
Trin, trin, trin, dans un jardin,
Qui fait danser, etc.*

Here the good curé stopped, filled with terror.

"Good heavens! Suppose my parishioners should hear me!"





Admiral De Ruyter

[The following selection is taken from "Michael Adrianson de Ruyter" in "Naval Heroes of Holland," by J. A. Mets, published by the Abbey Press, New York. It tells in stirring fashion the greatest exploits of this, the greatest of naval fighters, a man who besides being a great sailor and commander was remarkable for many admirable qualities as a man.]

On the first of June, 1666, he [De Ruyter] set out with his fleet to enter upon the greatest battle of his life and the hottest contest ever fought out upon the hoary sea, one that lasted no less than four entire days. His force numbered eighty-five men-of-war, nine fireships, and four swift sailing yachts to carry orders to the different parts of the fleet when necessary. Some of the ships were the heaviest and strongest ever sent out from Holland. De Ruyter's flagship, the *Seven Provinces*, and one other carried eighty guns, while that of Cornelis Tromp was armed with eighty-two guns. Ten others carried from seventy to seventy-six, and twenty-two were each pierced for sixty guns. The English fleet, commanded by Monk, Duke of Albemarle, numbered in all about eighty-seven men-of-war and eight fireships. Several of the former, however, were far stronger, both in guns and men, than any under the command of De Ruyter. Among these was the *Sovereign*, mounting 100 guns and manned with an equipment of 700 men, and the *Royal Prince*, carrying ninety-two guns and 620 men, while the two largest of the Dutch fleet were manned respectively with only 475 and 450 sailors and marines.

It was on the eleventh of June that the curtain rose to the most terrific spectacle that ever had been witnessed on any sea. De Ruyter's fleet was lying at anchor between the North Foreland and the Flemish coast. The admiral-in-chief commanded the center, Cornelis Tromp the right, and John Evertsen the left wing. About noon Monk and his fleet hove in sight. At once De Ruyter, according to his custom, signalled the order for prayer. On every ship in the fleet the men knelt down, as the chaplains prayed for strength and courage for the living, victory for the fatherland, and pardon and grace for all who should give their lives for the right.

Then a hearty meal was served to the men, and, as a special favor, each received a glass of wine. Three ships' bells rang through the entire fleet, the trumpets gave the signal to charge, and the mighty sea-monsters rushed to the bloody fray. The conflict opened with characteristic fury on both sides and never slackened except only when the night cast its thick mantle between the combatants and compelled them to rest. This was repeated for three days. At the close of the third day the English, having lost a number of vessels while others had been utterly disabled, began to retire. The advantage so far was with De Ruyter, and if he had been free to follow it up at once, there is no doubt that Monk would have sustained a crushing defeat. But with the dawn of the fourth day another English fleet appeared of twenty-five ships under the command of Prince Rupert. Most perilous now was the prospect of the Dutch fleet. For, after all the damage sustained in the preceding three days, it was in no proper condition to renew the contest with the enemy so strongly reinforced by a fleet of fresh vessels. But De Ruyter's exalted heroism inspired his entire fleet; officers and men, from the highest to the lowest were determined to conquer or die. Once more the thousands of cannon opened their mouths and thundered their loud defiance at each other; once more countless missiles filled the air and went crashing through the oaken bulwarks, tearing through the tarred rigging and dealing death and destruction on every side. The heavens were lurid with the constant lightnings that flamed forth from the iron-jawed dogs of war, while the tumult of the elements was lost in the ceaseless roar of the guns and the cries and shrieks of the wounded and dying. The gods of sea and air seemed to have retreated into their caverns, awe-struck and mute, affrighted by the direful clashing of these human Titans. Surely no famed naval battle of Greece or Carthage ever equalled this. But ere the sun dipped under the western rim of the horizon the fortune of war was decided in favor of De Ruyter, and the Duke of Albemarle was compelled to make for his own ports with the remnants of his fleet. Twenty-three of his ships had been sunk, destroyed or captured, six thousand of his brave men had been slain, and three thousand were carried off captives. The greatest loss to England, however, was that of three of her vice-admirals, of whom Berkeley and Mings had been killed and George Ascue was a prisoner. In the surrender of the latter's ship to that of De Ruyter, after a terrific and obstinate fight, William Van der Velde, a noted marine painter of that day, bore a conspicuous part. He was on board of De Ruyter's flagship to witness the battle and thus to secure a subject for painting. He was sitting in the cross-trees, sketching the awful spectacle, when the order was given by De Ruyter to

board. Van der Velde hurried down the mast, deposited his drawing material in the nearest cabin, and rushed with the crew on board of Ascue's ship. When the desperate hand-to-hand fight was at its hottest, the artist climbed up the mizzenmast with the agility of a common seaman, hauled down the admiral's flag, slid down the shrouds, with his trophy waving in his hand, and passed it over to De Ruyter. As he did so he said, "With this I want to pay for my board and lodging." In the melee the heroic deed of the artist seems to have been unnoticed by the English officers or sailors so that they were not aware that their flag was hauled down till the daring painter had already reached his victorious countrymen.

On the part of the Dutch the loss consisted of only four ships and two thousand men all told. No wonder that the hero who began the battle with prayer was ready to pour out his heart in fervent gratitude to God for the great victory achieved. And so far was he from taking any credit to himself for what had been accomplished, that, when one of his country's poets sang of his triumph in splendid song, De Ruyter said, "If anything great has been done, the glory must be given to God alone." Moved by the same spirit the government proclaimed a universal day of thanksgiving throughout the land to give praise to the Most High for the victory so signally obtained and to implore the divine aid for the future. Seldom was such a proclamation more faithfully and fully obeyed; in every city, village, and hamlet all feet were turned toward the sanctuaries, in every house of worship the voices of the people arose in grateful homage. The evening of that day was spent in every exhibition of joy at the memorable achievement; from every steeple the gay bells gave voice to the jubilant feelings of the multitude; bonfires lighted the sky from every street and field; each town vied with the other in the splendor of its fireworks.

As adversity often brings out the nobility of a great character much more fully than prosperity, so frequently the virtues of a hero are rendered less conspicuous by victory than by defeat. Of this De Ruyter on one occasion gave a notable example. On the fourth of August of this same year, and thus less than two months after the last battle, the fleets of the rival nations met again in the same neighborhood, off the North Foreland. In this it seemed as if friend and foe conspired for the destruction of the great hero. The English bent all their energies to crush De Ruyter, and, as if to make his utter overthrow the more certain, Cornelis Tromp, who commanded the rear division of the Dutch fleet, shamefully deserted his chief. The cause of this lay not in any lack of courage on the part of Tromp, but in jealousy and envy, those twin imps of evil that had wrought so much woe in this world. Tromp had claimed that De Ruyter had been promoted over himself and others

who had a prior claim to the position of the chief command of the Dutch navies, and he now allowed his jealous spite to overcome his sense of duty and honor, and left his chief to bear the brunt of the battle almost alone. The result was that what would undoubtedly have been another brilliant victory was turned into a costly defeat. And yet it was not an ignominious one, for even in this De Ruyter crowned himself with honor and glory. To this the King of France, Louis XIV, bore witness by presenting De Ruyter, on his return home, through Count d'Estrades, Louis's envoy extraordinary at The Hague, with the order of St. Michael, the oldest in the kingdom, and with the king's own portrait on gold enamel and surrounded with three rows of diamonds. With this a letter was sent to d'Estrades from the king, in which he said that he had learned from some Frenchmen who were present with De Ruyter in this battle that the admiral had performed deeds that seemed to surpass human powers; that at one time he had sustained with only eight of his own ships the attack of twenty-two of the largest English vessels and two of their admirals, and that they regarded his retreat a greater proof of his consummate skill than if he had gained the battle. His country, too, gave full recognition of the great services he rendered even in this battle. Amsterdam presented him with a magnificent sword with a hilt of gold, and Rotterdam with a splendid silver-gilt ewer, while his praises were uttered by all honest tongues throughout the land. His fleet had been defeated, indeed, yet his surpassing courage and skill had never been more fully exhibited than in the masterly way in which he drew out of the battle and brought his ships into safe harbor. Even Hume acknowledges that the greatest victory could not have given De Ruyter greater fame than this retreat.

In June of the following year, 1667, De Ruyter had another fleet ready with which to meet the boastful foe. So rapid were the preparations of those maritime nations in those days. And now he performed a feat which never before nor since, from the time that England became a naval power, was attempted. After their victory of the previous year the English fleet wantonly burned some defenceless villages on the coast of Holland. For this outrage De Ruyter determined to punish them. But he aimed not at harmless towns; he meant to send terror to the very heart of England by sailing up the river on which her proudest and largest city was situated, and to make the power of the Republic felt even there.

On the 16th of June De Ruyter reached the English coast with a fleet of sixty war vessels and fourteen fireships. His instructions were to sail up the Thames and Medway with as many ships as those streams would allow and destroy or capture whatever English vessels should be found there, and to burn and otherwise render useless whatever royal storehouses of naval provisions and ammu-

dition might be found at Chatham. It was not until the 22d that the arrangements for the great exploit were perfected. A small squadron of the lighter vessels with some fireships were sent up the Medway to attack Fort Sheerness. This was armed with fifteen guns; but, after a bombardment of an hour and a half, its defenders deserted their stronghold and left it in possession of their daring assailants. The cannons were brought on board of De Ruyter's ships and the fort dismantled. This done, they ascended the river toward Chatham, the chief naval depot of England. Some distance up the river stood Upnor Castle, commanding the stream. Before this could be reached, however, a formidable obstacle had to be passed. A number of vessels had hastily been sunk and a massive chain, running on pulleys over floating rafts, had been stretched across the river. Above this chain lay several huge men-of-war, while both shores were planted with cannon. If ever a place had been made impassable, surely this seemed to be so. But all these obstacles only seemed to strengthen the determination of the Hollanders. As the channel allowed of only one vessel at a time to ascend the river, a volunteer was called for to lead the way and open a passage. This was eagerly answered by Captain John Van Brakel, who for some insubordination was at this time under arrest. Though his ship was one of the lightest equipped in the fleet, but a swift sailer, he begged permission to take the advance. His request was instantly granted; he was released from confinement and reinstated in command of his vessel. He at once ordered all sail to be set, passed his compatriots that were ahead of him, and, without firing a gun, went through the terrible hail of shot that rained upon him from the hostile ships and batteries, and carried his ship clear over the chain. Here he engaged the nearest English frigate, the *Unity*, gave it one terrible broadside, and boarded and captured it almost in a moment. His loss in the entire exploit was only two or three wounded. Commodore John Van den Ryn followed him in the *Pro Patria*, which dashed with such force at the chain that it broke in two and thus made a clear passage for the rest of his squadron. Of the men-of-war lying on the other side of the chain three of the largest were burned, some fled up the river, while one, the *Royal Charles*, carrying 100 guns, was captured and sent to Holland. Now the way was clear to Upnor Castle. Here matters were conducted with the same impetuosity and rapidity. The guns of the castle were silenced and the defenders of the supporting batteries were driven from their guns and put to flight. Of the four men-of-war that were lying under the guns of the castle only one escaped, the other three being given to the flames. The crews of all those seemed to have been seized with a panic, as officers and all shamefully deserted their ships. Their cowardice was offset, how-



Admiral De Ruyter, the greatest of Dutch Sea Captains (1607-1676). From the Painting by Ferdinand Bol.



The Four Days' Battle between the Dutch and English Fleets, June 11-14, 1666

ever, by at least one of the officers. The captain of the *Royal Oak*, one of those that were destroyed, a Scotchman by the name of Douglas, refused to leave his ship, though he, too, could easily have saved himself. He preferred to perish in the flames of his burning ship, saying, "It has never been known that a Douglas left his post without leave."

In the whole affair the English lost nine of their largest ships, together with a great number of dead and wounded, and all under the very eyes of Monk and Prince Rupert. De Ruyter's loss was reckoned at barely fifty men and a few boats.

As on wings of the wind the news spread to London, filling the city with consternation. The inhabitants hurriedly prepared for flight, expecting nothing less than that the Dutch fleet would sail up the river and lay their great and rich capital in ashes. De Ruyter, however, had no such intention. All that he had been sent out for had been accomplished, and, this done, he returned home.

A singular Providence seemed to favor the great enterprise both at its inception and at its close. At the start, a strong tide and favoring breeze from the east carried the fleet up the river, while, just as the feat was accomplished, the tide and wind turned and carried the daring Hollanders with equal rapidity out to the remainder of the fleet at the river's mouth. This exploit compelled Charles the Second to end the war with Holland at that time. A treaty of peace between the two countries was signed at the city of Breda on the 24th of the succeeding August.

A notable and noble tribute to the enduring fame of the great hero was given when the Emperor of Germany, on the occasion of his visit to Amsterdam in 1891, went personally to the New Church and laid a wreath on his tomb; and then knelt down and spent some moments as if in silent prayer. In 1841 a bronze statue was erected to his honor in his native city Flushing, and was placed on an open space quite near the spot from which he made his first attempt to become a sailor. It was unveiled and solemnly dedicated in the presence of King William the Second and his suite. This was more recently removed and placed on the boulevard laid out on the old sea-wall, where it was rededicated in the presence of the queen-mother and Princess Wilhelmina, now the beloved queen of the Netherlands. The statue now faces and looks down from its lofty position upon the turbulent waters of the North Sea that he had so often braved and that so often had been witness to his triumphs.

Shortly after his death letters came from the Court of Spain addressed to De Ruyter which informed him that the Spanish King had bestowed a dukedom upon him with an annual revenue of two thousand ducats. As death had made such honors forever useless

to the great man, the title, its privileges and emoluments were conferred upon his son, Captain Engel De Ruyter, who, however, modestly requested that it might be changed to a barony.

Thus the wild and good-for-nothing boy of the Flushing rope-walk had risen to the highest place and fame in the most dangerous, the most laborious, and yet one of the most honorable professions that men can follow; had raised his family from the most obscure to the most exalted social position; had rescued his country from impending ruin and brought to her undying renown.

The surpassing excellence of the great man deserves a brief summing up of his character. Unpromising as was his boyhood, there was scarcely a virtue but adorned his manhood. Truth, honor, diligence, zeal, fidelity, courage, daring, endurance, generosity, humility, temperance, purity, patriotism, godliness—such was the galaxy of graces that ennobled him like jewelled stars in a diadem. And for this let us, as he himself ever did, magnify the grace of God which alone had made all this possible.

That the bold and daring lad should have become a mighty man of war is not so surprising; but that the uncontrollable scape-grace should have risen to such eminence as that of commander-in-chief of all the fleets of Holland; that the ignoramus should have become master of eight languages; and, still more, that the good-for-naught, as all had deemed him, should have become a Christian of exalted piety,—this is cause for wonder indeed.

We close this sketch of the great seaman with the testimony of three witnesses from among the people against whom he fought most frequently and over whose fleets he gained such brilliant victories. His English biographer says, "He was the most upright man, the most devout and pious Christian, the bravest, wisest, and most experienced leader, so good and patriotic a citizen of his country that he is justly regarded by all posterity as the ornament of his age, a great naval hero, and a most redoubtable warrior." Another English writer, quoting the words of Richter that, though many historians assert De Ruyter to be the greatest naval hero that ever lived, yet Du Quesne vanquished him, says, "To institute a comparison between the two is to compare a snuff candle with a brilliant lamp." And when on August 27, 1816, the English and Dutch fleets under Lord Exmouth and Baron Van de Capelle had given the Dey of Algiers a severe drubbing, Lord Exmouth gave a feast on board of his flagship to the officers of the allied fleet. Exmouth drank first to the peace and prosperity of the two nations; then lifting his goblet again, he drank to the memory of De Ruyter, and after that to the memory of Nelson, adding, "I drink first to the memory of De Ruyter because he is so much older and greater than Nelson."

The lines placed under a likeness of the great admiral exhibited in every shop window in Holland after his last victory over the combined English and French fleets may fittingly complete our tribute to the man:

"Behold the hero! Holland's strong right hand,
The savior of the imperilled fatherland,
Who three times forced two kingdoms in one year
To strike the flag, and filled their lands with fear.
The fleet's true soul, the arm by which God wrought
The victory that peace and honor brought."

Student Life in Bonn: The Impressions of an American Student

By Paul Vincent Harper.

THE University of Bonn is not as well known to American students as Heidelberg or Berlin, or, indeed, many other German universities; you can easily pass two or more months there without meeting an American. In fact in the summer semester of 1908 there were only six of us registered as students—and we all fled from one another at sight because we were in Germany for German. At our one reunion on the Fourth of July, we all agreed that Bonn was an ideal place for German, for one can with exceptional ease fall in with German life in all its forms.

It is a pretty little town and very aristocratic, having in its roll of "Burger" eighty millionaires, the Kaiser's sister, and the Royal family during their student life. Bonn is a small town, but just large enough not to be monotonous. There are innumerable little things to do in the hour or half hour before mealtime when you are tired of studying German, and have no homelike corner in which to glance over a magazine. You can swim in the Rhine, or in a beautiful

tank by the University. You can walk up the famous Coblenzer Strasse looking among the shrubbery for the "Villas on the Rhine." You can get your hair cut by the same barber who cuts the Prince's hair. Or you can look at the shop windows for presents for the people at home.

An electric car runs into Cologne in forty minutes, to the opera or the theater. You can do a little sight-seeing to keep in practice, and pick out the famous places to show the ever expected and unexpected friend. Bonn itself lies on the Rhine plain just as it winds out from among the hills. The famous old Drachenfels and the Seven Mountains, the Eifel—the joy of the German tramper, are within half an hour. In short Bonn offers itself as a small university town, Cologne as a large city, and one of the best walking tour districts in Germany all in one.

The life there is the characteristic hospitable, lazy Rhineland life. Living is cheap; time is plentiful; amusements are many. The first impression you receive of the town is, "How do all the eating places do business?" And yet despite their number, in the afternoon between five and eight o'clock, it is really difficult to find a table to yourself. Little signs, "stammtisch," reserved table, stand in every corner. When this sign is a continuous, twisting combination of letters written in gold on a miniature banner that is held aloft by a bronze soldier with drawn sword, the table is reserved for a student club. They come in in groups of two or three, laughing and boisterous; colored caps on their heads, and colored bands showing across their highly buttoned vests; white canes swinging in their hands, and they drink many liters of beer. If the sign is less gaudy, a mere card, the table is reserved for a group of crooked backed old cronies who lisp and grumble into their glasses. Or it may be for a club of business men.

I was invited to one of these latter through a high-school teacher who was giving me lessons. We sat around a corner for two and a half hours, a crowd composed of two lawyers, a very fat architect, a fatter business man, a teacher, two doctors, and an old "corps" man whose face and shaved head

were striped with red and white scars. Before I left them the lawyer had invited me to a Bowling Club on Tuesday evening; the architect, to go to a concert on Thursday; someone else, to make an all day trip with the Eifel Verein on Sunday; and the old "corps" man to see a duel. All invited me to come around "whenever I could not find anybody else to drink my beer with." But the bowling club was but an excuse to drink beer. The concert was more or less likewise. The tour in the Eifel had its goal in a big dinner and a cool bottle of Mosel wine. The duel alone seemed to be there for itself. That is the German of it.

This life in the neat little restaurants, which are invariably hung with pictures of the Kaiser and of Bismarck, is most interesting, especially the life of the students. They drink glass after glass of beer, munching "schnittchen" between the sips. The older men make the poor freshmen drink beyond themselves, and they obey as if the customs and precedents were the law of the land. They laugh, sing, and shout over the rules of the beer "comment." Every little while one of them stops his laughing, rises, swings off his cap, and holding it at arm's length, drinks a "prosit" to an elderly acquaintance at the next table, who bobs his head and takes a sip of his beer in acknowledgment.

I entered the University as a regular student; and thereafter received all my bills, and signed my name "for statistical purposes" in all the libraries, with the title "Herr stud-phil." So matriculated, I moved along in line for three hours, signing books, giving police descriptions and family history. Then all the "Fuchse"—Freshmen—were crowded into a large parlor-like room where the Rector made a long speech, and then presented us in alphabetical order with a handshake of greeting and a student's card. This card is one of the student's most precious possessions. Through it he can draw books from the library; he is admitted to various dances and city concerts; he gets tickets at half price for the opera and state theater in Cologne; and he can come home howling and singing grand opera at any time of the early morning without

being disturbed in his revels by the police. If he really becomes too noisy, or does something else besides singing and shouting, the police do stop him, get his name and address from the card, and report him to the authorities. He is fined a few marks, but the affair is carried on by mail. The student receives a letter stating that he has been fined, and that he must pay on a certain day.

One day six students drove around the market place all in one carriage, singing and drinking beer. One of them was trying to play a cornet; but that was too much for the policeman. The students had gone beyond their privilege of singing. He tried to stop them but they drove on. Then he attempted to jump into the carriage, succeeding only, however, in climbing up on the step. Meanwhile the beer that the students were drinking had splashed over his uniform and his trousers had rubbed up against the carriage wheels. He finally managed to get the student's name as Hans Muller, which is as common as John Smith or Sam Jones. Of course, he didn't believe it; but after insisting on seeing the fellow's card, he found to the laughter of the students that it was correct. They then drove on, pushing the policeman off as he was telling them that they could sing, but they "must not blow the horn." This is called "Akademische Freiheit," the password of university life.

In general the student life in Bonn is a great deal different from that in America. In the first place, there is absolutely no university spirit. Of the nearly four thousand students in Bonn, I have seen only three hundred together at one time, in the Bismarck procession, which is, if anything, *the* student affair of the semester. There are no dormitories; and so the students rent rooms with breakfast, all through the town. If they belong to an organization of any kind, they eat together at rooms. In the evening, they either eat in their rooms or in the restaurants. Moreover, there is no fixed course of study; no required attendance. A student has to go to class only once at the beginning of the semester to get his book signed by the professor, and once at the end. There is only one examination in the whole university course,

the doctor's examination at the end. Some of the students have so much interest in their work that they wander from one university to another, working under the various men in their line. The "corps" student's interest is all taken up in his corps and he has little left for studies or university. There are no classes; so each man keeps his own record of semesters. And especially around the Kneipe table is this carefully inquired after to see who has precedence in the drinking customs. There was a crew that had several races, not, however, as a university crew, but as a rowing club. There was a football team, not representing the university, but a football Verein. The German interest in athletics is not at all small, especially if you call duelling athletics; but the spirit is all within the university. There are a hundred small factions. For the university spirit in our sense of the word, there is no room or need.

The Germans have their "grinds" and their blind "grinds" as well as we; but they have a larger middle class that should not be called "grinds" but hard students. This presents a very fine man. He has a great interest in his work that carries him, as I have mentioned, free from sentiment to many different universities. He reads very widely in national and current events. He likes Ibsen. He will give up anything to hear his favorite operas. No hill is too high for him to climb, no matter how tired he is, to get a pretty view. He will travel a hundred miles to visit an art gallery or a museum. He wants to learn from everything he comes in contact with. But he also takes his pleasure as pleasure, else he would be no true German. He either belongs to some literary circle or has a group of friends with whom he drinks coffee and plays skat every afternoon after dinner. Every Sunday he takes walking tours through the Eifel or the hills. He and his friends drink a "Bowl" together, and sometimes hold unofficial "Kneipes." When it is warm of an afternoon, two or three walk down to where the little river Sieg flows into the Rhine, strip and go in swimming in true American style. He frequently goes to one of the dance halls where only students are admitted through their cards, to keep up the tone of the

company, and dances indiscriminately or discriminately with the boarding school girls. Although he does do a great deal of work, he says, "Oh well! you can't do much when the fellows are around. You must wait till vacation." Perhaps this is the reason that they have almost six months vacation every year in Germany. This student interprets his "Akademische Freiheit" as freedom, independence of work and opinion—and he represents comparatively a large class in the university. If he has any one fault, however, it is that he becomes too independent, that he does not give proper allowance to other people's opinion, which make him sometimes rather disagreeable. But this may be a good fault.

But the type of student that is known as the German student, that is no doubt more representative, at any rate more numerous, is the one that interprets "Akademische Freiheit" as freedom of student life. These are students of the type of the "corps" student. There are three grades of student organizations: originally there were the old corps; later came the Burschenschaften and the Landsmannschaften; then the Turnerschaften, which class includes also singing clubs, rowing clubs, etc.

Among the "corps" students are the fashion plates—and the colored caps, the ribbons, and the scars offer good material for artistic workmanship. They dress in tight fitting trousers, apparently to look thin because the Crown Prince is thin. They carry white canes, and wear monocles most deftly. A face, no matter how young, without a mustache is a rarity. They never carry umbrellas because the officers do not.

The colored caps on the wall around the lecture hall are shamelessly few. Their interest is far from study. These are the men who do the duelling. The groups of patched and bandaged fellows you meet every day on the street gives witness to the fact that duelling is by no means decreasing although the Catholic Corps and certain others forbid it. Of this sort was the only form of inter-university sport I heard of, a series of duels fought between a corps in Heidelberg and one in Bonn. One corps will sometimes fight all day long,

running off fifteen or sixteen duels, almost every member having a turn at it. The Freshman, as a rule, at first receives only two colors, as a pledge. Then for a semester he is taught to fence and to carry himself as a "corps" man. Before he can carry the third color of his club, he must have fought and handled himself well in one or more duels. During this first semester's training to "carry himself as a 'corps' man" besides learning the rules of fighting and honor, he also learns to drink an enormous amount of beer. He subjects himself absolutely to a rigid set of customs; he stays up all hours of the night; he leaves all respect for his physical good behind in an attempt to harden himself to the wildest, severest sort of life. This is a criticism that you will hear just now very widespread in Germany regarding the "corps" student, although it does not apply so strongly to all of them. The duelling itself is not the serious point of objection; but it is the reckless life that accompanies the duelling. And yet there is something about the old traditions and jovial spirit of these corps that make you favor them.

This life naturally does not last indefinitely. A young student "lives" his two or three semesters, and then he either tires of it and stops; or goes on and becomes a total wreck. The wreck, a common sight, leads the laziest of lives. He sleeps till late. At noon he goes to an outdoor restaurant for dinner; sits there all afternoon half asleep over his beer; eats his supper without moving; and wakes up in time for a Kneipe at night. The changing of universities, however, saves a great many. When conditions have made it impossible to lead a reasonably quiet life, the student can go to another university and begin all over again.

This is a general view of the student life in Bonn. Whether it is, all in all, better than our American student life is hard to decide. You must experience both and then—"there is much to be said on both sides."

The German Kaiser

III. A French View of the Kaiser

By Maurice Leudet

THE Emperor of Germany was pleased recently to revive the famous saying of Napoleon III., "Empire is Peace." And William II. heaps kindnesses on us. In the course of his interviews with M. Jules Simon in Berlin, we are told that he did not spare his eulogiums on France, and the expression of his desire to live in harmony with her. Her arts, her literature, interest him. He professes to have a high idea of our army, and pays homage to the exceptional valor of our generals. He could find words full of emotion, I remember, when the Marshals Canrobert and MacMahon died. In words he is so sympathetic that a certain number of Frenchmen award him praises which are not given to him in his own country. A German who lives in Paris—an amiable and skeptical philosopher—said to me not long ago:

"I think it is his fine feathers which attract your countrymen when they praise our Emperor to the skies. He is in truth a soldier who looks well on horseback in the middle of his army. He adores uniform, and it becomes him marvelously. This is what takes the fancy of the crowd. With us, where, in spite of the victories we have won, we have less enthusiasm for these outward gifts of the Sovereign, the despotism of William II. increase every day the already large number of malcontents, whose votes are given only to those who dare to declare that they would have an end made of the existing regime—in other words, to the socialists. These malcontents are far from being disciples of Karl Marx; many of them are totally ignorant of the first principles of the author of 'Capital'; but they see in the Liebknecht and the Bebel the necessary instruments for making a breach in that power which the Emperor more and more desires to make absolute.

I am not afraid to tell you that the middle classes in Germany who in no way hold 'subversive ideas,' as the fashionable phrase is in government spheres in Germany—are no less hostile at heart to the Emperor than the working classes; the elections of next year will give you striking proof of this."

The correspondent of a great journal of the other side of the Rhine cried, in the middle of a conversation which we were having on the subject of William II.:

"Our Emperor? . . . But he is the Emperor of the French . . . and we make you a present of him with the greatest pleasure."

The fact is that in Germany William II. is not so popular as we imagine here that he is.

Here he is discussed, but his ready wit, his originality, his quick-wittedness, interest even those who do not see in him a rival of Frederick II. or even of William I.

The *Times* of Monday, June 21, 1897, published a sensational correspondence of M. de Blowitz. It reported the declarations made by the Emperor William to a "very important person."

Before publishing them here I took pains to ascertain their authenticity. The correspondent of the *Times*, when questioned by me, replied thus:

"I assure you absolutely of the authenticity of the interview. The conversation took place with a Frenchman of very high position, and was faithfully reported. It was on the occasion of a private dinner and lasted a long time. The interlocutor was not a political man, but a savant, an open-minded man and one knowing much of all Europe.

"I may as well add that the interview was quoted by all the German papers, and that no German official or officials have denied it."

Here are not the exact words of the *Times*, but the sense of those used by M. de Blowitz.

"William II. expressed his opinion on three points. 'I do not know,' he said—and really it is a quaint way of looking at things—'I do not know why the French are so angry with me. It was not I who brought about the existing state of things. It is a heritage I found, and I do not think that there can exist a being in the world, capable of thinking, who can reproach me for having accepted it. I have done nothing to aggravate a situation which was handed on to me, and of which, up to the present, I have contented myself with being a faithful and respectful guardian.

" 'I think that even those who make the most outcry, if I were to ask them what they would advise me to do, could not advise me to do what they must feel themselves incapable of doing if they were in my place. And all the same they dislike me as if I had done it all myself, and they make all my efforts to ameliorate a situation, of which the amelioration would have the happiest results for both countries, useless.

" 'I have endeavored to create a common action for the two countries on commercial and industrial grounds, and on economic grounds. But some have replied to me with the prejudiced determination of incapable men, and others with the disposition to sympathy of intelligent men, but who have neither the courage nor the necessary authority to bring things to a happy conclusion. In these circumstances one must let things take their course, and depend upon time to bring about solutions which one cannot foresee. . . .

" 'Yes, I have a great respect and admiration for the Pope Leo XIII., but it is his German partisans who prevent me from doing anything for him. Our Catholics are much more absolute than French Catholics. They only recognize one thing; the reestablishment of the temporal power in all its former extent, so that it would be impossible for me either by will or deed to restore this former state of things; they would not only not accept any concessions from me, but they would accuse me of acknowledging what they call "spoliations," even while they accepted the concessions of those who

had despoiled them. . . . No, I do not see any present prospect of rivalries, and I am sure that everybody desires most sincerely to avoid them. But I am not so sure as to the future of Europe. I foresee a double danger for her. I am not afraid for her of the "yellow peril"; recent events have repelled that for some time to come. Nor do I fear the "red peril," because that rests on Utopia and on spoliation, and because the whole civilized world is resolved to unite in its efforts to combat it, and protect itself against its destructive action. But I fear on one side the danger of a certain invading and continued extension with which Europe is threatened by one of her races, armed with all the resources which civilization puts and will put at the service of her ambition; and on the other side I fear the intervention of the New World, which is beginning to develop appetites from which it has been up to now free, and which will before long wish to interfere in the affairs of the Old World and to meet half way the ambitions, always waking, which are stirring around us. This is what I fear, and this is why for my part I do not allow myself to be carried away by ambitious desires of troubling Europe, which would be only too readily attributed to me under the pretext of wishing to prevent me from troubling her.' "

One can see that it is always France which is the object of his liveliest desires. He wishes to draw her into his orbit. If he has not already succeeded, he counts on time, which often does bring about forgetfulness of injuries. He needs a France reconciled to Germany to preserve definitely for him the heritage which was left him, and also—and it is here that his ambition shows itself—to check a "certain invading and continued extension with which Europe is threatened by one of her races, armed with all the resources which civilization puts and will put at the service of her ambition." When this interview was published, there was but one voice in naming the enemy.

This enemy is evidently England. Nevertheless, Mr. de Blowitz assured me that the distinguished savant had declared that by this William II. had meant Russia. Without wishing

to throw any doubt on the perspicuity of the savant, we may be permitted, until further orders, to believe that the Emperor of Germany was alluding to England. William the Second's sentiments for that country have been long known. He showed them in a startling manner, in his famous telegram to the President of the Transvaal, Kruger, after the failure of the Jameson raid. Prince Bismarck succeeded in getting us into trouble with Italy by letting us go to Tunis, and by having cleverly manoeuvred to back the colonial enterprises of France, particularly in Tonquin, in order to render our continental policy ineffective. William II. is obviously endeavoring now to embroil us with England. He is not ignorant that everywhere we are a little in rivalry with England, and that the establishment of England in Egypt, which seems to be permanent in spite of the most positive and most solemn assurances of the Queen's ministers, is a great difficulty, the greatest which separates us from our neighbors across the Channel. Then he puts before us in official journals the great advantage it would be to France to accept loyally the Treaty of Frankfort; it would secure to us, if needed, the effectual support of Germany in expelling the English from Egypt. William II. forgets to tell us that Germany has colonial ambitions; that she is not afraid of France on this ground, but that she is held in check in Africa by England, with whom she has already found herself in serious conflict; and that in reality, in encouraging us against Great Britain, she is seeking the friendship of France to serve German interests.

To those who have lived any time in Germany—and this is my case—it is absolutely certain that the German people would not permit him to abandon what his grandfather conquered. The victories of 1870 have left, deeply rooted in the masses, sentiments which are rocked as it were to the tune of the recital of our defeats and the glories of Germany.

Quite lately, just after the celebration of the alliance, when the Tsar and the President of the Republic had spoken of a peace based on right and equity, William, in a speech of

August 31st, at a State dinner, in the presence of the heir to the Duchy of Baden, uttered these words:

"Today's review does honor to the commander of the Eighth Corps. It depends on us to preserve in its integrity the work of the great Emperor and to defend it against all foreign claims and influence. I hope that every general, in all that concerns him, will endeavor to attain this end."

Here is a new and decisive answer, I think, to those who still delude themselves and believe in the possibility of a great dramatic scene, when William II. will reënter Paris and restore to us the keys of Strasbourg and Metz.

* * * *

William II., who in certain circles has been persistently eulogized for political wisdom and all the qualities of a statesman, has up to the present seen his designs singularly frustrated. Since he disembarrassed himself of Bismarck's tutelage, five principal facts have been produced.

1. Germany has lost her place as a preponderant power in Europe. Russia has taken her place.
2. France has entered into an alliance with Russia.
3. The Triple Alliance has almost ceased to exist.
4. England has been made hostile to Germany.
5. The links between Russia and Germany have been snapped and have not been reunited.

The great English review, *The Fortnightly*, brought forward these five points in a clever study on "The Foreign Policy of the Emperor of Germany" which appeared in one of its numbers. Let us only hope that William II. will not contrive to renew the relation of his country with Russia, and drag all the continental powers into a conflict with England! Unless the Emperor of Germany succeeds in the master stroke,

which would have its effect on France, it will not be long before the Prussian power and the German power succumb before the Franco-Russian alliance, with the moral or effective support of "Greater Britain."

The Fire at Chautauqua

At three o'clock on the morning of October 19, fire was discovered in the Colonnade building at Chautauqua, which housed, besides the postoffice and stores of the town, the Chautauqua Print Shop. Here the November number of the magazine was nearing completion.

After an unavailing struggle of four hours the entire building and contents were consumed. The loss is estimated at \$100,000, of which about half falls on the Institution and half on the tenants of the shops, etc. The Institution has \$25,000 insurance.

The magazine now in your hands is a reprint, made in Buffalo, seventy-five miles distant, of the edition destroyed. Slightly altered appearance and lateness of issue will be accounted for by this statement of facts. It is expected that the December number will be mailed on time.

The Colonnade will be rebuilt before next summer.



The German Emperor and Empress



The Aula Christi, Chautauqua, N. Y. The dedication of which has been assured by the raising of a fund of \$10,000.

The Vesper Hour*

First Service in the Aula Christi, Chautauqua, New York,
August 17, 1908.

Conducted by Chancellor John H. Vincent.

THE first service in the Aula Christi, Hall of the Christ, at Chautauqua, N. Y., was conducted in the yet unfinished building one evening last summer. The beautiful edifice, the completion of which has been assured by the raising of a fund of \$10,000, will henceforth be the home and center of religious teaching at Chautauqua. The initial service, held shortly after the needed funds had been secured, marks the beginning of what promises to be a long period of the highest usefulness and significance in the religious life of Chautauqua.

A report of the service and Chancellor Vincent's brief statement of the purpose of the Hall of the Christ will be of interest to many Chautauquans. The Chancellor, in opening the service, said:

"It is very important that we should conduct this service promptly, and I call upon you all in the name of the Christ whom we serve, and in whose honor this place is to be dedicated, to engage in this service thoughtfully, reverently, earnestly; to sing these hymns and to join in this Responsive Service with devout spirit.

" 'Come, let us tune our loftiest songs,
And raise to Christ our joyful strains.' "

After the Responsive Reading, in which probably two thousand persons participated, Bishop Vincent said:

"The crown of the work at Chautauqua in architecture is the *Aula Christi*, 'The Hall of the Christ.' Here on the

*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

The Vesper Hour

heights, yonder the sloping sides of the hill, and beyond the Lake, beyond the Amphitheater, there (pointing) the Hall of Philosophy; here we place as our tribute to the source of our civilization and the ground of our hope for salvation, this beautiful temple. We have sought to do the best that architecture could do. We have been limited by the limitations, the necessary limitations, put upon us. We have good hope that in the years to come this building may be filled with reminders of the life, the character, the mission and the work of Jesus Christ in human history, and especially in our Christian civilization.

"It is the object of this Hall to promote profound reverence among worshippers. The American people, especially we Protestant Americans, are very much in danger of losing the benefit of reverent approach in our public service to the invisible God whom we worship. It behooves us to have a place of quiet, of reverence, for retreat, for meditation, for instruction in the things that relate to Jesus Christ, the author and finisher of our faith.

"We propose here, through classes for little children and older children and young people and adults and scholars, to study thoroughly the story of the life, the mission, the character of Jesus Christ as set forth in the Holy Scriptures. We propose here to study Christ in history, as he has affected the civilization of the ages. We propose here to study Christ as we raise the problems, social and political, of our civilization, which is a Christian civilization. And it is amazing to think how many problems would be solved in our social life, in our political life, if we were to make Jesus Christ the standard of character and of conduct, and the innermost source of character.

"It is to fulfil this mission that this Hall has been erected. But especially it is the mission of this Hall to foster the spiritual tone and habit; that we may think more closely and pray more reverently, and believe more implicitly, study the Word of God more thoroughly, and in our personal experience come to understand the mystery of his indwelling as he takes possession of the personality. We mourn when we think,—the best of you mourn when you think,—how lofty the ideals He

has breathed into your souls, and how low the standard of daily attainment and of daily conduct.

"It is hoped that in this Hall, through its suggestions, through its instructions, through the impressions that it makes, we shall come to covet a deeper spiritual life and be drawn personally nearer to Him who has the secret of everything that is good in human nature, that is good for human nature; where the Spirit of God lays hold of the consenting soul and the promise is fulfilled 'Whatsoever ye shall ask the Father in My name, He shall give it unto you.'

"It is a very easy thing for us when we study Christ, the mystery of Christ, to generalize in mere dogmatic statements and discussions. It is very easy when we study Christ for us to melt into moods of tenderness and emotional excitement for the time, and then to have a reaction come leaving us stranded, cold and selfish as we were before. God grant that through the years that are to come in this beautiful and sacred temple many an aching heart may find comfort in the living Christ; many a burdened heart have the assurance that sin is forgiven; many a perplexed heart find in Jesus Christ a guide amidst all the perplexities and anxieties of mortal life.

"I wish that in the spiritual heavens now encompassing us there might at this twilight hour, at this the dedication, or the beginning of the dedication, of this Hall,—I wish that here and now every one of us, from the man who speaks, from the men and women who sing, to the people who hear and who unite in singing,—I wish that tonight that we might personally say: 'O Living Christ, with all our unworthiness, with all our sins and unbelief, with all the failures of our ideals, with all the breaking of our vows, we turn to Thee and surrender ourselves to Thee for Thy guidance and Thy possession.'

"In the silence of this twilight hour, will you make this surrender, each soul as in the presence of the Most High. Whatever your theological views may be, do not wait to conform them to some other person's theological views. Take the highest that you have now and act on it, with a holy resolution; and lift a prayer to the infinite God whom you recognize and ask this grace.

The Vesper Hour

"Oh, it would be a beautiful thing if, tonight, there might among the thousand or more people assembled here vows of surrender be made that would never be forgotten. Let us pray.

"O God, our Father, who hast given to us Thy Son, Jesus Christ, and commanded us to worship him, from whom with the Son comes the Holy Ghost, that mystic Trinity, Three in One, Wisdom, Love and Power; by whose energies human souls may be transformed, evil habits broken, sin pardoned, peace taking the place of unrest, joy the place of fear and despair,—do Thou grant unto us at this time the abundant blessing of Thy grace, that we who are here present may surrender ourselves anew to Thy service.

"Bless us as parents that we may feel our responsibility and train our children to honor Him in whose name this house is built. Bless us as families that we may every day illustrate the Gospel which we profess. Bless us as citizens that we may be loyal to the nation and do all that we can for the building up of our race and the making of the world wiser and better. Take selfishness out of our hearts that leads us to think only of ourselves and care only for ourselves. And do Thou grant unto us at this time a new awakened sense of our social responsibility, that we may not only seek to be good neighbors, and not only be received into the heaven that is yonder, but able in our measure to transform the present into a heaven while we live on earth.

"For all Thy goodness which has guided us, and for all the gifts of Thy servants who have contributed to this good cause, we give Thee thanks. We pray for Thy continued grace in the continuance of our work, and crown it, O Lord, with the gift of Thy blessed Spirit. And in this calm and quiet evening hour, breathe upon every one of us and say, 'Receive the Holy Ghost.'

"Now unto Him who is able to do exceeding abundantly, above all that we ask or think, according to the power that worketh in us; unto Him be glory in the church, by Jesus Christ, throughout all ages, world without end. And may the grace of our Lord Jesus Christ be with you all. Amen."

A Thanksgiving Litany

By Caroline Sheldon

For purple vintage, garnered harvest golden,
Blessing of plenty in basket, field, and store,
For bounties new and mercies known and olden,
We thank Thee, Lord.

For peace that dwells serene along our borders,
For beckoning hope that gilds our pathway o'er,
For the Hand that guides, the Love that ever orders,
We praise Thee, Lord.

For wanderings long and far, for safe returning,
For sound of kindred speech, for loves of home,
For holy lives, fair beacons steady burning,
We bless Thee, Lord.

For all of art's and nature's varied beauty,
For glowing window, towering spire, and dome,
For lettered leisure and stern call of duty,
We praise Thee, Lord.

And for the kindly work of pain and sorrow
In depths, before unguessed, of heart and soul,
While waiting tranquilly the unknown morrow,
We thank Thee, Lord.



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THE SIFTING PROCESS.

Our studies for this month deal with a number of great men. Some of them are living today. If we find pleasure in analyzing the character of a man whose work is finished there is an even greater fascination in watching the career of one who is still playing his part. Such men as the Emperors of Austria and Germany and the King of Italy represent three strikingly different types, all of whom are confronted with similar problems. It will be worth our while to study carefully the personalities of these men while we watch the daily progress of events. The game of statecraft in modern Europe is often productive of surprises as the characters of rulers reveal themselves in all their human strength and weakness. As everyday people have to be molded by the discipline of small affairs, so it is interesting to note in the unfolding of history before our eyes how the men who lead have to take their share of the sifting process.



At the recent exercises of Opening Day, October 1st, at Chautauqua, referred to elsewhere, Mr. F. C. Bray, Managing Editor of The Chautauqua Press, gave a brief sketch of some

of his experiences in Europe last spring which was especially pertinent in connection with the readings of our current Modern European year:

"I have been on a Reading Journey in a peculiar sense, having taken a Reading Journey through the Reading Course ahead of you for the coming year. Indeed, in reading for the course I have probably taken more journeys than any one of you would be willing to take. In addition to that, I had the privilege of taking an actual journey, picking up, for example, more than half the illustrations in the current magazine. In working over the seven subjects—'Foundations of Modern Europe,' 'Seen in Germany,' 'Man and the Earth,' 'Studies in European Literature,' 'The Friendship of Nations,' 'A Reading Journey in Holland,' and 'Dutch Art and Artists,' one finds himself impressed with two facts,—first, the way in which the development of modern Europe is tied up with Napoleon; and, next, the predominance of Germany and the dominating figure of the Kaiser, the man whom Germans consider Heaven-sent and the French think crazy. In Bavaria it is difficult to find a post-card with the Kaiser's picture, for Bavarians call themselves Bavarians, not Germans—so varied in sentiment is the congeries of states that make up the German Empire."

Mr. Bray spoke of some European sights suggested by his topic—Napoleon's tomb, the Bastille with its single mighty tomb covering four hundred Revolutionists, one of the sewers of Paris flowing under bars beneath, the women street sweepers and women switch tenders in Munich, etc. A series of articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will describe the significant movement among German women.

Holland is changing rapidly from its old traditions of cleanliness and picturesqueness. Amsterdam is dirty, the Hague is clean, but everywhere the decorum which we have always attributed to the movements of the Dutch is changing to "hustle" just as it has changed in Japan. An American photographer representing the Metropolitan Museum had just been successful in taking a photograph in colors of the "Night Watch" by the auto-chrome process.

"We who look upon our age as given over to commercialism may well take heart from a study of the art of Holland and of Venice. In Dutch art some of the most superb examples are portrait groups of the Guilds; in Venice some of the finest portraits are of those Doges who were princes of commerce. In the Palace of the Doges the largest painting in the world portrays the commercial supremacy of Venice. It made me feel that our time and country may in time produce something quite as worth while in art."



CHAUTAUQUANS IN CHILE.

Several members of this year's graduating class of 1908 in the far East were heard from last year, and it required only a report from the Southern Hemisphere to give to the class membership the complete sense of having girdled the globe.

This link was supplied in the summer by a letter from an individual reader in Santiago alluded to in the September Round Table, and at this time by the following letter from another part of Chile, the two pictures accompanying it giving on the one hand an idea of the external environment of our Chautauqua readers in that country and on the other a suggestion of their daily occupation, which might find its counterpart in many North American cities. The reference to winter, however, in this letter written in June is a reminder of the leagues that stretch between us. It is dated Concepcion College, Concepcion, Chile, and comes in reply to a letter from the Round Table Editor:

Your last letter was a very long time in reaching my southern home and this is really the first half hour I could set apart for its answer. Do you know that I have told the door girl, the teacher-on-charge, the servants and my daughter to allow no one to call me during this morning hour while I speak with you. Then I have taken the key and resolutely locked myself away from any chance interruption. We have a holiday today—Corpus Cristi—but very few of the devoted here who will answer the summons of the cathedral or convent bell know why this is a "special" day. It is raining gently and steadily, not at all like our last cloud burst which flooded the "patios," overflowed the water gullies and beat in at every crevice, until in some rooms it seemed to rain as hard as in the open air. Thus far we have had a mild winter and we congratulate each other that our hands are still free from chilblains and our great coats are hanging in the closets.

How much I have wished to be at the Chautauqua Assembly this summer. Will you please extend my most cordial greetings to the Class of 1908? My reading is all faithfully done, save the magazines which have not yet reached me. The May number arrived yesterday. Have you other circles yet farther away in point of correspondence?

Our college has grown rapidly in recent years. We have built a new annex and now are filled again to our utmost capacity. That means an entire enrollment of about 200. We have 90 boarders and 90 day pupils in actual attendance. I enclose a few pictures. The smaller one shows our gymnasium at a recent rehearsal. One of the larger ones gives you a good idea of the corner property which we wish very much to buy. Two of the college buildings are hidden.

I organized our Concepcion Chautauqua Circle with much enthusiasm. Two teachers, two pupil teachers, one American lady, six of our Alumni who live in the city, my daughter and myself—thirteen, I think, was the number who paid their dues, received the books and began the work. Then a Literary Society in the American College joined with us and for a few months everything was promising. Then one by one the members found difficulties in attending the meetings. (A Chilean girl never goes out unaccompanied.) Sickness caused the disbanding of the Literary



Concepcion College, Concepcion, Chile. (Two story building on the right.)



Gymnasium at a Rehearsal. Concepcion College, Chile.

Society. The members at a distance filled their time with nearer duties and so at the end of the first year my daughter and I were the only ones who had the courage to continue. Many have read our books. Others have asked about the Course. Some are even now talking of beginning again. The effort has not been in vain. But the fact remains that our Circle is reduced to two. We have enjoyed the entire course very much. Our reports will be forwarded soon.

I purpose to continue the reading. Please have a set of books sent for 1909. I still hope that my daughter may spend the next year in Syracuse and she may not be able to do more than the work required there. The idea of systematic reading is in harmony with the idea of systematic living. Fully one half of one's time and strength is lost when there is no plan. I shall recommend the Chautauqua Reading Course to every busy worker whom I know. I have been able to compass the entire course in moments which many, nay, even most people, would lose.

My husband is now in the States. He went as a delegate to the General Conference in Baltimore and we hope he will visit Chautauqua. He has read fully one half of the prescribed magazine reading and most of the books. My own is a busy life, for I am not only Preceptress but housekeeper, house mother, teacher, bookkeeper and, in my husband's absence, general manager. This will explain why my letter goes to you so late. Do not forget to give my greetings—our greetings I should say—



Members of the C. L. S. C. of Urbana, Ill., at the Class Day Exercises of 1908. (See page 467.)

to the Class of 1908. We live in a land of song and romance but in the midst are plainer seen the darkness and degradation of a slowly dying faith.

Yours most cordially,

IDA A. T. ARMS.



THE CLASS OF 1909.

The Class of 1909 at Chautauqua has shown from the outset even more than the ordinary amount of class enthusiasm. The attendance has been large every year and the class has had frequent cosy councils at which they have discussed the many aspects of their various Chautauqua experiences. All these things have tended to give them a deep interest in the members of the class at large. They have accepted their stewardship very loyally, and ever since they selected the name of "Dante" they have acted up to their motto, "On and fear not." Perchance distant readers of 1909 have many times been cheered quite unconsciously through the friendly



Tennyson. From the etching by Paul Rajon.

thought waves which have come from their Chautauqua classmates. The approach of graduation gives to this year a particular importance for every member of the Dante class. Three years of experience have educated its members in a knowledge of themselves. Let every member, whether well up with the reading or lagging a bit behind, take courage with this new year and make a record worthy of the class.

THE C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."

THE 1908 CLASS PORTRAIT OF TENNYSON.

With many people the enjoyment of etchings is an acquired taste. They find their way readily in a gallery of paintings but an exhibit of etchings has small attractions for them. Yet this branch of art lends itself to the most beautiful and satisfying effects, and it has attracted some of the men of greatest artistic genius, notably Rembrandt, who has left many examples of his skill.

The committee of one, of the Tennyson Class, Miss Una Jones, who was appointed to select a portrait of the poet for the class room at Chautauqua, was by special good fortune able to secure a fine etching by the distinguished French etcher, M. Rajon, which we here reproduce in half-tone. Even this imperfect medium shows not only the strong, expressive lines which give vigor to the portrait but the delicate rendering of light and shade which the artist has handled with rare skill.



SOME DUTCH PROVERBS.

Many cows, much trouble.
Men can bear all things, except good days.
The best pilots are ashore.
Velvet and silk are strange herbs: they blow the fire out of the kitchen.
It is easy to make a good fire of another man's turf.
God giveth the fowls meat, but they must fly for it.
He is wise that is always wise.
The pastor and sexton seldom agree.
No crown cureth headache.
There is nothing that sooner dryeth up than a tear.
When old dogs bark it is time to look out.
Ride on, but look about.
It's bad catching hares with drums.
Before thou trust a friend eat a peck of salt with him.
When everyone sweeps before his own house, then are the streets clean.
High trees give more shadow than fruit.
It happeneth sometimes that a good seaman falls overboard.



Circles will find much pleasure and benefit in occasional digests of important magazine articles relating to world conditions. Where the circle has no library a small tax per member of five cents a week would easily create a fund from which an occasional magazine could be purchased to the great enjoyment of the circle.

C. L. S. C. Round Table

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.	ADDISON DAY—May 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.	INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.
MILTON DAY—December 9.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.	INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.	ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.	RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.	
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.	



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR DECEMBER.

FIRST WEEK—NOVEMBER 26—DECEMBER 3.

- IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Part III. The Story of the Peace Movement to page 344.
 IN the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter VIII. The Reaction.

SECOND WEEK—DECEMBER 3-10.

- IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Part III. The Story of the Peace Movement, concluded.
 IN the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter IX. The Revolutions, Chapter X. The Unity of Italy.

THIRD WEEK—DECEMBER 10-17.

- IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Dutch Art and Artists." Chapter III. Rembrandt and His Pupils.
 IN the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter XI. The Unity of Germany and Epilogue.

FOURTH WEEK—DECEMBER 17-24.

- IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in the Hollow Land." Chapter III. Art, Ancient and Modern Sports, Skating, etc. A Wedding. Courtship.

FIFTH WEEK—DECEMBER 23-31—VACATION.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

- Roll Call: Reports on paragraphs in Highways and Byways and other current news.
 Review of Chapter VIII in "Foundations of Modern Europe," The Reaction. Let each member bring a statement of the chief points in the chapter.
 Reading: Selection from "Personal Recollections of Liszt," *Century Magazine*, 65:866, April, 1903.
 Oral Report: "The Fight Against Dueling in Europe." (See *Fortnightly Review* for August, 1908; abridged in *Review of Reviews* for October.)
 Character Sketch: The present Emperor of Austria. (See articles in *Review of Reviews*, 36:552-5, Nov., '07; *Living Age*, 255:707-15, Dec. 21, '07, also *Outlook*, 87:477-81, Nov. 2, '07.)

Oral Report: "Austria's Dark Horse, Francis Ferdinand." (See *Fortnightly Review*, 88:904-18, Dec., '07; same article in *Living Age*, 256:195-216, Jan. 25, '08.)

SECOND WEEK.

Review of Chapter IX on The Revolutions.

Roll Call: Answers to the question: "What is the outlook for the 'Friendship of Nations' in view of the Balkan situation?"

Review of chapter in "Foundations of Modern Europe" on "The Unity of Italy."

Paper: Dramatic features of the Italian struggle for Independence. (See "Makers of Modern Italy," Marriott. This will be found also as one section of "Men and Cities of Italy.")

Roll Call: Quotations from Mrs. Browning referring to the Italian struggle for freedom.

Character Sketch: Cavour. (See above "Makers of Modern Italy.")

Book Review: "Italy Today" by Bolton King. A very valuable book showing how Italy has progressed.

Oral Reports: Side Lights on Italy Today. (See current articles relating to Italy, "Rome's Jewish Mayor," and "The Making of Modern Rome" in *Review of Reviews*, 38:484-6, Oct., 1908.)

THIRD WEEK.

Map Review: Germany after the Congress of Vienna and Germany of today.

Review and Discussion of Chapter XI in "Foundations of Modern Europe."

Character Study: Bismarck. (See a small volume by Monroe Smith, "Bismarck and German Unity," also article in *Atlantic Monthly*, 82:560, by Kuno Francke, "Bismarck as a National Type." References in Poole's index will suggest other articles if desired.)

Reading: Selections from "Anecdotal character sketch of Bismarck" by C. Lowe (*Review of Reviews*, 18:291), or from article on Student Life in Germany in this magazine.

Roll Call: Items of interest relating to the Kaiser and Germany as affected by the recent Balkan troubles.

Review of article in this magazine on "The Social Policy of Germany," by C. R. Henderson.

Study of article on Rembrandt and his pupils, members being assigned special pictures on which to report. In "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters" there is some very interesting critical comment by Mr. J. C. Van Dyke on Bol, Dou, Maes and Flinck. These chapters were first published in the *Century Magazine*, 25:563; 27:412 and 933.

FOURTH WEEK.

Paper: Holland of Rembrandt's time from the death of William of Orange to the death of John DeWitt.

Roll Call: Dutch Proverbs. (See Round Table.)

Reading: Selection from account of De Ruyter in the Library Shelf of this magazine.

Oral Report: The Position of Woman in Holland. (See chapter with this title in "Dutch Life in Town and Country.")

Reading: Selection from articles on Dutch Fisheries and Skating and Sleighing in "Holland Described by Great Writers," Singleton, and "Holland and its People," DeAmicis.

Discussion: Germany and the Future of Holland. (Each member should bring all available material. See articles "Future of the Netherlands," *Living Age*, 251: 253-5, Oct. 27, '06; "Does Germany really aim to absorb Holland?" *Review of Reviews*, 31:735, June, '05; "German Designs on Holland and Belgium," *North American*, 84:22-8, Jan. 4, '07.

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special programs for Graduate Circles and Clubs specializing upon the two Dutch Series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

FIRST WEEK.

Brief Review of Dutch History to 1648. (See outline on page 462.)

Paper: The Netherlands under John De Witt. (See *Histories of Holland*, Larned's "History for Ready Reference," etc.)

Roll Call: Dutch proverbs. (See Round Table.)

Oral Report: Dordrecht. (See "Holland Described by Great Writers," Singleton. "Brave Little Holland," Griffith. "A Wanderer in Holland," Lucas, and Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland.")

Reading: Selections from Chapter on The Professional Classes in "Dutch Life in Town and Country."

Discussion: Germany and the Future of Holland. Each member should bring all available material. (See articles: "Future of the Netherlands," *Living Age*, 251:253-5, Oct. 27, '06; "Does Germany really aim to absorb Holland?" *Review of Reviews*, 31:735, June, '05; "German Designs on Holland and Belgium," *North American*, 184:22-8, Jan. 4, '07.

SECOND WEEK.

Review of current article in the Reading Journey.

Paper: The Position of Women in Holland. (See Chapter with this title in "Dutch Life in Town and Country." Also *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 21-435.)

Book Review with reading of Selections: "The Cloister and the Hearth." Charles Reade. (Times of Erasmus.)

Oral Reports: "Country Life in Holland," "Dutch Fisheries," "Skating and Sleighing." See "Holland Described by Great Writers," Singleton, and "Holland and its People," De Amicis.

Roll Call: Specimens of the Dutch Language. (See Baedeker.)

THIRD WEEK.

Oral Report: The Holland of Rembrandt's time.

Points of View of the Rembrandt Tercentenary: (See bibliography following Mr. Zug's article.)

(Four persons should be appointed to report on the magazine articles referred to and any others that may be available.)

Paper: Rembrandt as an etcher. (See bibliography.)

Oral Report: Some of the principal subjects chosen by Rembrandt. (See list of his principal paintings in the "Masters in Art" Monograph on Rembrandt.)

Discussion of article on Rembrandt and his religious pictures, the pictures being assigned to different members and the comments of various critics studied in connection with them.

FOURTH WEEK.

Paper: Rembrandt as teacher. (See lives of Rembrandt and of his pupils.)
 Character Sketches: Ferdinand Bol and Gerard Dou. (See "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters" by T. Cole and J. C. Van Dyke.) These studies were first published in the *Century Magazine*, Bol, in 27:933; Dou, in 25:656, March, 1894.
 Critical Studies of Rembrandt's pupils, Bol, Flinck, Maes and Dou. (See *Century Magazine*, 27:412 for Flinck; 25:563, Feb. 1894, for Maes.)
 Book Review: "Story of Art Throughout the Ages." Solomon Reinach.

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON DECEMBER READINGS.

THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS, CHAPTER III. THE STORY OF THE PEACE MOVEMENT.

1. What organizations show the importance attained by the Peace Movement?
2. How long has this movement been in progress?
3. What conditions led to it?
4. What ideas looking toward universal peace were put forth in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries?
5. How did the Peace Movement take shape in the early part of the nineteenth century?
6. Describe the organization of the first Peace Society.
7. What English society was formed the next year?
8. Describe the work of William Ladd.
9. How did our Civil War affect the progress of the movement?
10. When and in what way did the cause of peace take on new life?
11. What is the general status of the Peace Movement?
12. What was the character of the international congresses held from 1843 to 1851?
13. In what cities have the modern peace congresses been held?
14. Show how various governments have co-operated in these congresses.
15. Describe the origin and work of the International Peace Bureau.
16. What is the purpose of the Interparliamentary Union?
17. What important results followed its meetings in 1904 and 1906?
18. How early was the idea of a High Court of Nations emphasized?
19. Show how far reaching was the work of William Ladd.
20. Show how plans for a permanent International Tribunal of Arbitration developed.
21. What influences resulted in the establishment of the Bureau of American Republics?
22. How are the various peace organizations striving to render effective the work of the two Hague conferences?
23. Show how rapidly the practice of arbitration has increased.
24. How has the idea of a Permanent International Court of Arbitration progressed?
25. What was the origin of the Nobel peace prize?

A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW LAND. CHAPTER III.

1. What are the great characteristics of Dutch Art?
2. What artists are associated with certain types of landscape or of domestic scenes?
3. How long a period covers the work of some twenty of these artists?
4. What artists are credited with the discovery of oil painting?
5. Why did so much of the work of their predecessors perish?
6. Who are the leaders of the Modern Dutch School and what are some of their distinctive traits?
7. Describe the fishing fleet of Scheveningen.
8. What are some of the chief sports of Holland?
9. What festivities accompany the skating

period? 10. Describe a Dutch wedding. 11. What is the Dutch custom of courting?

DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS. III. REMBRANDT AND HIS PUPILS.

1. What evidences have we of Rembrandt's prosperity during the first half of his career? 2. What was the nature of his home life? 3. What changes came with the death of Saskia? 4. What extravagances are attributed to him? 5. What marvelous creative energy is shown by his works which have come down to us? 6. How did the sacred paintings of Italy differ from those of Rembrandt? 7. Describe his painting of "Simeon in the Temple." 8. What artistic qualities does he show in "The Angel Leaving Tobias?" 9. How does his picture of "Christ at Emmaus" compare with paintings of Christ by other artists? 10. What is true of Rembrandt's work as an etcher? 11. What peculiarities of style did Gerard Dou develop? 12. What are some of the best specimens of his portrait work? 13. How was he fond of treating interiors? 14. How did his pictures compare in popularity with those of Rembrandt? 15. What were Dou's limitations? 16. Who were some of Rembrandt's best known pupils? 17. How do their works compare with the master's?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What important books on peace were written by Hugo Grotius? 2. What connection had Lord Selden of England with the first of these two books? 3. What interest was shown in the work of Grotius by the Swedish general, Gustavus? 4. What international treaty abolished the practice of privateering? 5. When was the practice of plundering a defeated foe formally abandoned?

1. From what is the quotation referring to Amaryllis taken? 2. What historic sea fight took place near Scheveningen? 3. How do the flags of Holland and Belgium differ? 4. What do the Dutch call their country?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON NOVEMBER READINGS.

1. Journalist and novelist. Born in Utica, N. Y., 1856, died in London, 1898. Graduated from Hamilton College. Editor of *Utica Observer* and *Albany Evening Journal*. From 1884 until his death was London correspondent of the *New York Times*. In his fiction he aimed to portray the peculiar features of American life. Among his best known works are: "Seth's Brother's Wife," "The Lawton Girl," "In the Valley," and "The Damnation of Theron Ware." 2. Servia, Roumania, Bulgaria, European Turkey, Montenegro, Bosnia, and Herzegovina. 3. After the Greco-Turkish War of 1897. The powers appointed a High Commissioner in 1898. The country freed from Turkish tribute though still under the suzerainty of the Porte. 4. In the eastern part of European Turkey, northwest of Constantinople. 5. Mulai Hafid, half brother of his predecessor. 6. Those situated upon or having control of a given shore.

1. A pseudonym of Charles Godfrey Leland who wrote burlesque poems in Pennsylvania Dutch. He lived in London from 1869-80 and gave much time to the study of the language and customs of the gypsies. His translations of Heine's lyrics are among the best. 2. Dutch navy: 8 battleships, 7 cruisers, 1 monitor, 1 protected gunboat, 15 modern and 4 old torpedo boats. Germany: 24 battleships, 7 battleships coast defence, 39 cruisers, 69 destroyers, 47 torpedo boats, 1 submarine.

United States navy: 25 battleships, 28 cruisers, 10 monitors, 3 scouts, 16 destroyers, 33 torpedo boats, 12 submarines. 3. Michel Adriaanzoon de Ruyter. Born at Flushing, Netherlands, in 1607; died at Syracuse, Italy, in 1676. A famous Dutch admiral. He served against the Spaniards in 1641 and against the English in 1652-4. Became vice-admiral after the death of Tromp in 1653. Ennobled by the King of Denmark at the close of the war with Sweden, in 1660, De Ruyter having commanded the Dutch fleet. Became Admiral in Chief in the struggles with the English and French fleets in the '60's and '70's and was mortally wounded in a battle against the French off Messina in 1676. 4. Eendracht maakt Macht (Unity makes strength). 5. It was formed by the union of several smaller trading companies in March, 1602. Received from the state a monopoly of the trade on the further side of the Straits of Magellan and the Cape of Good Hope, including the right to make treaties and alliances in the name of the States-General, to establish factories and forts and to employ soldiers. It held the chief centers of commerce in the Indian Archipelago and had flourishing colonies in South Africa. Dissolved and territories transferred to the State in 1795. 6. Boyman's Museum, at Rotterdam; Mauritshuis, Steengracht Gallery, Municipal Museum, and Mesdag Museum, at the Hague; Town Hall, Haarlem; Six collection, Ryks Museum, and Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

GLOSSARY.

The following is a selected list of words occurring in the required book for this month. See paragraph under "glossary," page 306, of the October CHAUTAUQUAN for explanation of typographical arrangement.

Bosnia	<i>bor-ne-ah</i>
Beethoven	<i>bay-to-ven</i>
Budapest	<i>boo-dah-pest</i>
Bukharest	<i>boo-ka-rest</i>
Bukovina	<i>boo-ka-vee-nah</i>
Cavour	<i>kah-voor</i>
Custoza	<i>koos-toat-sah</i>
Chopin	<i>sho-paV</i>
Chauteaubriand	<i>shah-to-bree-eN</i>
Caucasus	<i>kaw-ka-sus</i>
Castanos	<i>kahs-tahn-yoas</i>
Herzegovina	<i>hehrt-se-go-ve-nah</i>
Jeanne d'Arc	<i>zhan-dark</i>
Laveleye	<i>lahv-lay</i>
Liszt	<i>list</i>
Montmirail	<i>moN-mee-ray</i>
Magyar	<i>mo-dyor</i>
Mahmud	<i>mah-mood</i>
Monaco	<i>mon-ah-ko</i>
Oudinot	<i>oo-de-no</i>
Orsini	<i>or-se-ne</i>
Quatre-Bras	<i>kahtr-brah</i>
Rheims	<i>reems</i>
Rouen	<i>roo-eN</i>
Sadowa	<i>sah-do-vah</i>
Wagram	<i>vah-grahm</i>
Walewaka	<i>vah-lee-aka</i>

REVIEW OUTLINE OF DUTCH HISTORY.

Romans, Celts, Teutons, Franks, Vandals, and other races held sway in the early centuries of the Netherlands.

Saxons and Frisians who crossed the Channel to England, sent back later Christian missionaries to their Dutch neighbors. First Christian Church at Utrecht about 720 A. D. Pipin, king of the Franks, conquers the Dutch Frisians in 692. St. Boniface brings the Frisian Christians under the sway of Rome. Is murdered at Dokkum by a pagan and patriotic reaction.

800 A. D. *During the time of Charlemagne* the Netherlands were under his control. Following him the Feudal System which prevailed took form in various Dukedoms, Countships and Bishoprics. In Frisia democratic tendencies prevailed even in feudal times and the land belonged to the people. The development of commerce led to the growth of towns. Seven feudal states ultimately arose: Holland North and South, Zeeland, Utrecht, Overijssel, Drenthe, Groningen and Friesland.

1096 to 1292. *The Crusades* brought Dutchmen into contact with the Orient. William, Count of Holland, with twelve ships, aided in capturing Alcazar and in reducing the siege of Damietta in Egypt. They brought home new ideas. William granted a charter to Middleburg in 1217. This document shows the fixed status of the Dutch language and the independent spirit of the people. The Crusades resulted in increase of luxury, freedom of slaves, growth of towns and manufactures, windmills, church spires, cupolas, and bells, improvement of dykes, revival of the lost art of brick-making, exacting of privileges from feudal masters and growth of religious independence.

1351-1500. *The Cods and Hooks*: A feud which started between the aristocratic classes under William of Holland and the popular elements under his mother Margaret, sister of William I. It continued until 1433 when Jacqueline of Bavaria surrendered to her cousin Philip of Burgundy, who united all the provinces of the Netherlands under one rule in 1433. Order of the Golden Fleece established. Only twenty-five great nobles, kings or emperors eligible. The weaving industry became the basis of the Netherlands' prosperity. Philip died in 1467. His son, Charles the Bold, added to his father's tyrannies and at his death in 1477 the Netherlands stood for their rights. Mary of Burgundy, Charles' daughter, met the first Congress at Ghent. The Great Privilege, the Dutch Magna Charta, granted. 1477 also the first Bible translated into Dutch. Mary married Maximilian of Austria in that same year and the Netherlands came under the Hapsburgs. Maximilian as regent of his son Philip ignored "The Great Privilege," sided with the "Cods" and crushed the people. Charles the Fifth, son of Philip, born in 1500. The most famous of the Hapsburg rulers.

The sixteenth Century: Social Progress: Development of bulb industries from all over the world. Botanical gardens. Progress in agriculture and stock raising. Many practical inventions, "Dutch oven," etc. Introduction of flax, linen manufactures, dyeing, weaving, bleaching, etc. Lace-making becomes a fine art. *Intellectual movements*: Influence of the printing press and the Bible in Dutch. Next to Italy Holland led in number of schools. Gerhart Groote (1340) born at Deventer had

founded the "Brotherhood of the Common Life" taught and encouraged the multiplication of manuscripts and schools. His followers spread the new ideas of the Renaissance and developed public schools. *Religious Movements:* Erasmus born in Rotterdam 1467, educated in Holland, studied Greek at University of Paris, lived in England, visited Rome. Wrote on his return to England "Praise of Folly," exposing weaknesses of the Church. Made a correct text of the Greek testament and laid the foundation for the work of other scholars. The Anabaptists exerted strong influence in favor of freedom of conscience and right of private judgment. They were the beginners of the Reformation in Holland, followed later by Lutherans and Calvinists. Charles V. attempted to crush the Reformation in Holland, and taxed the people for his wars. The Inquisition. Charles abdicated at Brussels in 1555. William of Orange stadtholder of three provinces. twenty-two years of age. Philip II., son of Charles, twenty-eight. War between France and Spain followed. The Netherlands sent troops. The victory of St. Quentin in 1557 under Egmont and Hoorn brought fame to the Dutch troops. William of Orange, as hostage of the Court of France, learned of the plan of Henry II. and Philip II. for the massacre of the French and Dutch Protestants. Struggle between Protestants and Catholics. The nobles protested to Duchess Margaret against the Inquisition and Spanish troops. The "beggars" were organized. Philip proved obdurate and the storm burst.

1567-1648. *Counts Egmont and Hoorn* were beheaded and William of Orange outlawed. Duchess Margaret retired. Alva was made governor-general. Battle of Heiliger Lee, the "Beggars" under Louis of Nassau defeated the Spaniards. William became a Protestant. Capture of Brill by the "Beggars of the Sea," other towns raised the Orange colors. Alva's attack on Narden. Seven months' siege of Haarlem. Alkmaar attacked by Don Frederic cut its dykes. Alva succeeded by de Requesens. Siege and rescue of Leyden. Founding of its University 1575. Don John of Austria becomes governor-general. Formation of the Union of Utrecht 1579. Seven provinces: Holland, Utrecht, Zeeland, Overijssel, Gelderland, Friesland and Groningen. They deposed Philip in 1581 and became The Dutch Republic. William of Orange assassinated 1584. Elizabeth of England aided the Dutch with men and money. Maurice, son of William, continued the war. Dutch East India Company formed in 1602. Dutch traders and wise administration at home helped to sustain the Republic through the long war. The Dutch built dykes and reclaimed new land. A truce with Spain for twelve years began in 1609. Troubles over state rights and religious freedom beset the Republic, Maurice representing the National party, John of Barneveld the State rights element. The situation complicated with religious controversies. Synod of Dort in 1618 called by Maurice, ostensibly religious but really political. The National party triumphed and John of Barneveld was executed. Frederick Henry succeeded his brother Maurice in 1625. The struggle with Spain closed in 1648.

1650-1672. *The stadtholders were set aside* and John De Witt ruled as "Grand Pensionary." Cromwell's navigation acts precipitated a struggle with England. De Ruyter, Tromp and other heroes achieved notable victories for the Dutch. Louis XIV. of France captured the Southern Netherlands belonging to Spain, but the Triple Alliance of Holland, England and Sweden kept him in check until its dissolution in 1672,

when the French fell upon the defenceless republic, seizing Guelders, Overysael and Utrecht. The people in wrath rose upon De Witt and tore him and his brother to pieces.

1672-1713. *William III., the last of the Orange-Nassau family*, was elected and defeated the French. Became king of England in 1688. Joined with the Dutch in opposing the encroachments of France. At his death in 1702 his cousin, John William Friso, became president. The Dutch took part in the War of the Spanish Succession and Utrecht was chosen for the peace congress in 1713. The eighteenth century marks the decline of the republic. The French Republicans captured the country in 1795, founding the "Batavian Republic" under R. J. Schimmelpenninck as Grand Pensionary. Napoleon's brother, Louis Bonaparte, king of Holland from 1806-1810.

1813-1908. *The French driven out by the Dutch with the help of Russia and Prussia.* The Congress of Vienna, 1815, united the Belgian provinces with Holland under King William I., son of William V., the last stadtholder. In 1830 the Belgian provinces revolted. King William succeeded by William II. and William III. and the latter in 1890 by Wilhelmina, the queen mother serving as regent until 1898. In 1901 Wilhelmina married Henry, Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, who was created Prince of the Netherlands.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

Several members engaged in earnest conversation attracted the attention of the Round Table as the delegates leisurely took their places. "If I had been in his position," one of them was saying, "I certainly should have acted in the same way, Turkey or no Turkey." Then the speaker, whose attitude suggested the Declaration of Independence, suddenly came to herself. "I'm afraid my fellow members of the Round Table," she laughed, "will think I'm waxing belligerent over plans for Thanksgiving, but as a matter of fact we were only discussing the Balkan situation! My family seem disposed to think that the Modern European year has gone to my head, but really they enjoy my pursuit of European news and one of my boys stands by bravely. He used to turn to the sporting column in the paper the first thing in the morning, but now he hunts up the foreign items first and we all discuss them together. When the proper names baffle our efforts at pronunciation I assign different words to each member of the household and sometime before breakfast the next morning we are sure to hear the result. We have bought the Century Cyclopedia of names and it already shows signs of wear. We made a sloping shelf for it in a convenient place and it seems almost like a member of the family. I haven't done any serious study for years and I'm really renewing my youth."

"Some of you who have read the life of Alice Freeman Palmer," said Pendragon, "may recall a very apt sentence in which Professor Palmer referred to Mrs. Palmer's adaptability. He said, 'What was peculiar in her was small. She chiefly distinguished

herself by wise ways of confronting the usual world.' It's a good phrase for us to bear in mind as we go into our new year of work. To confront our own environment wisely is possible to every one even if our talents are limited. It means foresight and careful weighing of claims instead of 'plunging' as many of us do. Then we excuse ourselves as 'too busy.' There are people who even find themselves too busy to read the daily paper and then they have a sense of being out of touch with things and their daily thinking is affected by it. The effect of just this one bit of foresight is to produce in us a sense of pressure and unrest. Let us plan this year to confront our usual world with all the wisdom we possess."

"This Round Table," he continued, "is necessarily a somewhat 'mixed affair' for there are some reports left over from the summer and we don't want to lose them—First, however, let me say that our new year is opening up with great promise. The enrollment is running well ahead of last year and the circumference of the circle is widening. Splendid work was done at many of the summer Chautauquas. Here for instance is the program of the Winfield Chautauqua banquet. Rev. D. W. Howell, Chautauqua's general secretary, who was present, reports that the occasion was a delightful one. If it was half as pleasant as one of its predecessors which I had the privilege of attending in the summer of '95 it was one of the best things of the assembly. Miss Meddie Hamilton, who has charge of the C. L. S. C. Round Table at four assemblies has a positive genius for awakening interest in home study. More than four hundred readers have been reported through her this summer and very many of them belong to the new class of 1912. At Ottawa, Sterling, and Cawker City, Kansas, and at Pontiac, Illinois, she has established a deep-down enthusiasm for the permanent features of Chautauqua work and has moreover trained and started on similar lines several other workers."

"This copy of *The Chautauquan Weekly*, which is published at Chautauqua throughout the year, you will notice, gives an extended account of the celebration of Opening Day, October 1st, when the Bryant bell rings in the new C. L. S. C. year. The earliest C. L. S. C. tradition is that 'Wherever they may be, true Chautauquans can hear its echoes.' The Bryant bell was never rung more vigorously than on the present occasion and doubtless even our members in the antipodes heard its distant tones. Let me give you the setting of the scene from *The Weekly*:

The weather last Thursday morning was like the coming year—full of promise and of hope, with flashes of fulfillment as the sun shone out brightly now and then.

The procession, two by two, wound down the hill from the Colonnade with the two daughters of Mr. S. D. Chaney of Cookman Avenue on their ponies as a vanguard. Dr. S. H. Day, the Marshal of the Day, came next with Mr. Charles Gill, the Chairman of the exercises at the Pier; and they were followed by four-score C. L. S. C. students—men and women, undergraduates, present workers, and members of the Society of the Hall in the Grove. There was a group of young ladies from Westfield and there were men and women of advancing years who proudly wore their badges of the Class of '82, and there were all sorts of intermediate ages. No one not within the charmed

PART II.

"A Day at the Know-it-all Woman's Club"

by MARY MONCURE PARKER

PLACE—Home of President.

TIME—Monday Afternoon.

DRAMATIS PERSONAE.

Mrs. Wisdom—President.....	Miss Fleming
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Miss Annual.....	Mrs. Campbell
Mrs. Would-be Vice-President.....	Miss Alice Lemon
Dr. Molly Cule.....	Mrs. Watts
Mary Ann.....	Mrs. Conklin

Reporters, Visitors, Servants.

"The entire program and the play were a great success and the pleasant social atmosphere of a private house gave to the gathering, though a large one, a cozy character. The graduate circle is taking up work in English Literature this year under one of the university professors and the undergraduates with the inspiration of this fine large '08 class behind them will assuredly make a fine record."

"Another echo of the summer comes in a note from Miss Otis of the Vincent Circle, the oldest circle of Des Moines. This circle has for many years been devoting itself to the study of Shakespeare. She writes, 'We have had a fine circle of eleven this year and have done good work on Henry V. and VI. You may be interested in our "finishing up" on April 23. For the last sixteen years I have celebrated the birthday of our friend William by giving a party with a suitable program. This year the circle gave the comic parts of "Midsummer Night's Dream" in a very creditable manner. We took the scene where the mechanicals meet to plan for the play; the wood where they practice and Bottom is transformed and Titania falls in love with him; further plans for the play and its performance before the Duke. Those who had seen it on the stage thought we were fully up to the mark and I felt very proud of them all!'"

"I fear we must postpone further comments till another meeting," said Pendragon, "but as you leave look over this small brown pamphlet on the table. The new year book of the Round Table Circle of Kokomo, Indiana. This pile of newspaper clippings you will see shows that circles are organizing and reorganizing everywhere."

Lectures on Modern Europe

One of the lecturers and Round Table speakers at Chautauqua this summer was Dr. Henry Zick, a native of Heidelberg, Germany, and graduate of its university. He is one of the lecturers of the Boards of Education in New York and vicinity and for the American Society of University-Teaching. Circles near New York may be glad to utilize this opportunity for securing one or more illustrated lectures on the subjects of the current year's course. Dr. Zick has traveled widely, and his lectures are the result of both study and observation. Dr. Zick will make special rates to small centers. Details can be arranged on writing to the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y. Three series of lectures which can be given singly or in groups are offered.

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1. Dr. Martin Luther and the Moral Regeneration of Europe.

A presentation of Luther's Life and Work and the Widespread Influence of the Reformatory Movement of the Sixteenth Century. 70 pictures.

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A presentation of the making of the New German Empire and the ascendancy of the German race in Europe and a thrilling account of the great war of 1870-71. 70 pictures.

GLIMPSES OF EUROPE AND EUROPEAN LIFE.

1. Imperial Berlin and Royal Potsdam.

A description of Germany's capital, its streets, buildings, life; a lesson in municipal government; a visit to Sans-Souci, the summer residence of Frederick the Great and William II. 80 pictures.

2. The Kaiser's Army and Navy, and Military Life in Germany.

A description of the military and naval establishment of the foremost military power in Europe and the Life in the Army. The latter is based on the lecturer's personal experience. 80 pictures.

3. The Picturesque Rhine and Peasant Life in the Black Forest.

A description of the gem of rivers; its cities and castles; its legends and its people; and of peasant life in the Black Forest, the most picturesque woodland country in South Germany. 80 pictures.

4. Heidelberg Castle, the Pearl of Ruins, and Student Life in Dear Old Heidelberg.

A description of Heidelberg, one of the most beautiful places in the whole wide world, and of the castle, the gem of ruins; how Germany's youth studies and has a good time at the same time. 80 pictures.

5. Paris, the Queen of Cities.

A description of the "ville lumière," the city beautiful, of its historical buildings, its lovely streets, its wonderful vistas and its momentous historical associations. 80 pictures.

6. Rome, the Eternal City.

A description of Roma Immortalis, her historical monuments, her present day beauty, her eternal charm as the conqueror of the world through her armies, her laws, her church. 80 pictures.

7. Naples and Pompeii, or the Siren City and the City of the Dead.

A description of Naples and its bay; its life and picturesque streets; of Vesuvius and Capri's gem, the blue grotto, and of Pompeii, a typical Roman town, preserved not destroyed by Vesuvius.

Esperanto News

Details concerning the fourth international Congress have come at last and confirm the good news which had come in through the Associated Press. Fifteen hundred Esperantists took possession of Dresden for a week and some very serious business was transacted, foremost of which stands the formation of an Academy which will rule on points of grammar and upon the admissibility of new words into the language. Twelve academicians were elected: Messrs. Boirac, Bein, Cart, Grabowski, Moch de Saussure, Nylén, Mybs, Villanueva, Wackrill, Ellis, and Evstifeieff. That is four Frenchmen, two Poles, one Swede, one German, one Spaniard, two Englishmen, and one Russian. This Academy met and organized four permanent sections: 1—grammar, 2—ordinary dictionary, 3—technical dictionary, 4—general affairs.

THE FIFTH CONGRESS.

Two nations contended for the fifth congress, the United States and Spain. In a spirit of enthusiasm and without stopping to consider the result, the fourth congress

decided that two congresses might take place in 1909, namely, one in Chautauqua and one in Barcelona, and that the dates could be arranged by agreement with these two countries. This is manifestly unfair to both applicants, for, if there is to be an international congress in Barcelona a few weeks after the congress at Chautauqua it is evident that many Europeans would avoid the greater expense of time and money by not coming to Chautauqua and going to Barcelona instead and those who would have spent the time and money to come here would scarcely afford to go to Barcelona a few weeks later. A brisk correspondence is now passing between the Central Office in Paris and the office of the executive committee of the Esperanto Association of North America upon this subject, and we hope that in the next issue we shall be able to announce that the Barcelona Congress has been postponed so as not to interfere with the Chautauqua Congress.

THE ESPERANTO ASSOCIATION OF NORTH AMERICA.

The preparations for the coming congress are in the hands of the Esperanto Association of North America which resulted from the convention of Esperantists held in Chautauqua last summer. The official address of this Association is 3981 Langley Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. Colonel George Harvey, Editor of the *North American Review*, has been elected president of the Association, Professor A. M. Grillon, vice-president, Mr. E. C. Reed, secretary, and Mr. E. K. Harvey, treasurer.

THE PROGRESS OF THE ASSOCIATION HAS BEEN REMARKABLE.

During July, when propaganda was inactive, there were 22 new members, in August, 55, during September, 122, and in October, up to date, 235. This, without the great movement which is taking place among the clubs who are just beginning to hold their meetings and who are holding back so as to join in a body, so that everything indicates that the membership will grow at the rate of 500 a month during the winter.

In order to make the Fifth International Congress what it should be, that is, the largest congress of Esperantists ever held, the Esperanto Association of North America need the good-will of all and specially of all those who are interested in having Chautauqua selected as the place for this great international gathering. The cost of joining the Association is only twenty-five cents a year and entails no obligation on the part of the member. If you send your name and address and twenty-five cents to the secretary, Mr. E. C. Reed, 3981 Langley Avenue, Chicago, you will help to bring about the congress and help the Association in its propaganda work.

A Short Course in Esperanto

THIRD LESSON.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Fire at Chautauqua destroyed all accented Esperanto type which must be especially cast for us. Hence these reprinted pages contain no accented

letters this month. New type with proper accents will be manufactured for us to use in the December issue.

LA TUALETO.

La servistino supreniras al la unua etago,
 si eniras en la kambron de la infano,
 si trairas la kambron,
 si iras al la fenestro,
 si malfermas la kurtenojn,
 Radio da suno penetras en la kambron.

La servistino vokas la knabon,
 la knabo ne respondas,
 tial ke li dormas.

La servistino alproksimigas al la lito,
 si prenas la knabon per la sukro,
 si skuas la infanon.

La infano malfermas la okulojn,
 li oscedas,
 li sin strekas,
 li remetas la kapon sur sian kapkusenon,
 li reekdormas.

La servistino skuas la infanon ankoraŭ
 unufoje,
 la infano vekigas tute vere,
 li sin decidas,
 li forjetas la litkovrilojn,
 li saltas el la lito.

Liaj subvestoj troviĝas sur seĝo,
 li alpasas al la seĝo,
 li alvenas al la seĝo,
 li prenas siajn subvestojn,
 li revenas al la lito,
 li sidigas sur la rando de la lito.

Li prenas sian kalseonon,
 li vestas sian kalseonon.

Li prenas strumpon,
 li pasigas la piedon en la strumpon,
 li tiras la strumpon.

THE TOILET.

The maid goes up to the first floor,
 she enters the room of the child,
 she crosses the room,
 she goes to the window,
 she opens the curtains,
 a beam of sunlight enters the room.

The maid calls the boy,
 the boy does not answer,
 because he sleeps.

The maid draws near the bed,
 she takes the boy by the shoulder,
 she shakes the child.

The child opens his eyes,
 he yawns,
 he stretches himself,
 he puts his head back on his pillow,
 he goes to sleep again.

The maid shakes the child once more,
 the child wakes up in earnest,
 he makes up his mind,
 he throws the covers aside,
 he jumps out of bed.

His underclothes are on a chair,
 he steps up to the chair,
 he arrives at the chair,
 he takes his underclothes,
 he goes back to the bed,
 he sits down on the edge of the bed.

He takes his drawers,
 he puts on his drawers.

He takes one stocking,
 he passes his foot into the stocking,
 he pulls on the stocking.

La strumpo kovras ĉiujn partojn de lia piedo, The stocking covers all the parts of his foot,

la strumpo kovras lian kruron ĝis la supro de la genuo,

li elĵetas la strumpon, he lets go the stocking,
li prenas la alian strumpon, he takes the other stocking,
li surmetas la alian strumpon laŭ la sama maniero. he puts on the other stocking in the same way.

Li prenas la strumpligilojn, He takes his garters,
li stopligas la strumpligilojn ĉirkaŭ la strumpoj, he ties his garters around his stockings,
li elĵetas la strumpligilojn. he lets go his garters.

Lia pantalono kuŝas sur seĝo, His trousers lie on a chair,
li elĵetas la brakon al ĝi, he stretches out his arm towards them,
li prenas la pantalonon, he takes his trousers,
li vestas la pantalonon, he puts on his trousers,
li kroĉas la zomunon de tiu ĉi vesto. he hooks the bands of that garment.

Farinte tion, Having done this,
li surmetas siajn selkojn. he puts on his suspenders.
Tio volas diri: This means:
li pasigas la selkojn super la ŝultrojn, he passes his suspenders over his shoulders,
li butonumas la selkojn malantaŭen, he buttons his suspenders behind,
li iom tiras la selkojn antaŭen, he pulls his suspenders forward a little,
li butonumas la selkojn antaŭen, he buttons his suspenders forward,
li elĵetas la selkojn. he lets go his suspenders.

Li serĉas siajn pantoflojn, He looks for his slippers,
li genuflakas apud la lito, he kneels by the bed,
li rigardas sub la lito, he looks under the bed,
li vidas la pantoflojn, he sees his slippers,
li elĵetas la brakon, he stretches out his arm,
li prenas la pantoflojn, he takes his slippers,
li relevigas, he straightens up,
li piedvestas siajn pantoflojn. he puts on his slippers.

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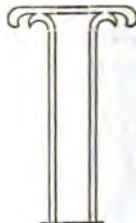
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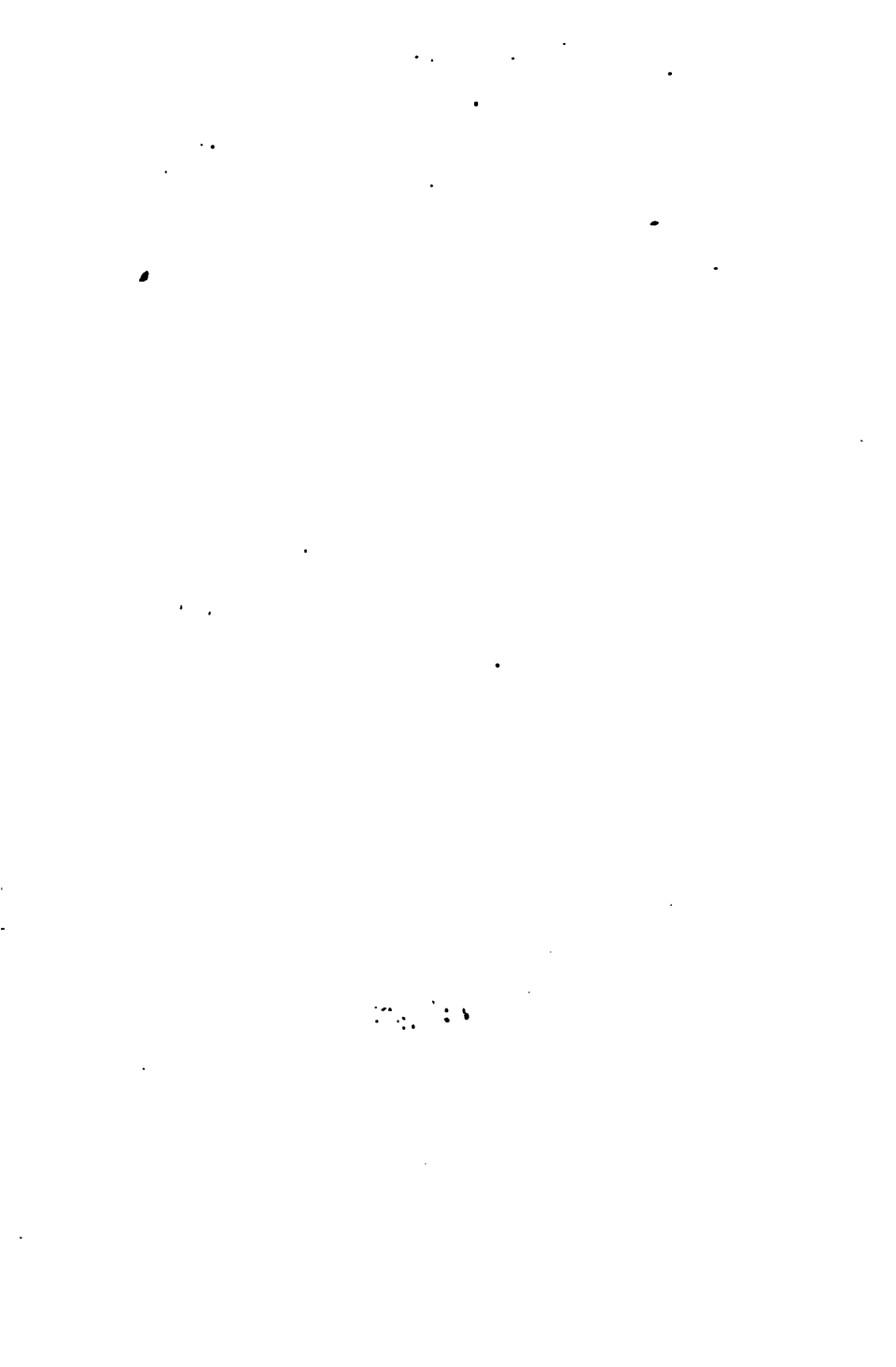
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